

COLLEGE CHEMISTRY

For Intermediate Part II

Shahid Ali
Prof. M. Nadeem
Saiwat Tahira

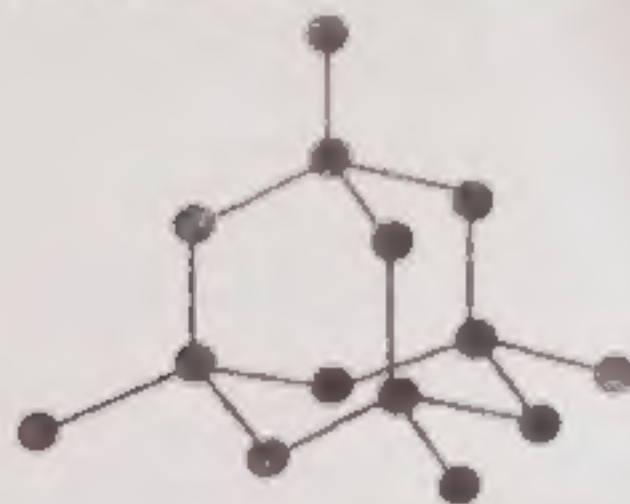


Education
Sindh

CHAPTER # 13

s and p-BLOCK

ELEMENTS



PERIOD 3 (Na to Ar)

ATOMIC AND PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF THE PERIOD 3 ELEMENTS

This period contains Sodium (Na), Magnesium (Mg), Aluminum (Al), Silicon (Si), Phosphorus (P), Sulphur (S), Chlorine (Cl) and Argon (Ar).

(A) ATOMIC PROPERTIES

(1) ELECTRONIC STRUCTURES

In Period 3 of the Periodic Table, the valence orbitals are 3s and 3p orbitals. They are filled with electrons. The short electronic structures are:

¹¹ Na	[Ne] 3s ¹
¹² Mg	[Ne] 3s ²
¹³ Al	[Ne] 3s ² 3p ¹
¹⁴ Si	[Ne] 3s ² 3p ²
¹⁵ P	[Ne] 3s ² 3p ³
¹⁶ S	[Ne] 3s ² 3p ⁴
¹⁷ Cl	[Ne] 3s ² 3p ⁵
¹⁸ Ar	[Ne] 3s ² 3p ⁶

In each case, [Ne] represents the complete electronic structure of a neon atom. (i.e. 10 electrons)

QUICK QUIZ-1

(1) The electron structure of Mg is 1s², 2s², 2p⁶, 3s². Write down electron structure of Al in the same notation.

¹³Al 1s², 2s², 2p⁶, 3s², 3p¹

✓(2) Which of the two elements Mg or Al has the more stable structure?

Mg has more stable structure. It is because it has completely filled 3s-valence orbital (i.e. 3s²). On the other hand Al has one valence electron in 3p-orbital which can be easily removed. Hence, Mg has more stable electronic structure. This is also indicated by high first ionization energy of Mg than that of Al.

(2) TRENDS IN ATOMIC RADIUS

- The distance of outermost electron from the nucleus of an atom while considering it spherical is called atomic radius.
- The size of atoms and ions decreases from left to right along the period. In a given period, the number of shells in all the elements remains the same. However, the value of effective nuclear charge increases from left to right due to increase in number of protons. The increased effective nuclear charge pulls the electron cloud of the atom closer to the nucleus. Thus, the size of the atoms and ions goes on decreasing from left to right.
- Along period the atomic and ionic radii of s-and p-block elements decrease with the increase of atomic number. This is shown in the table given below. The radii in the table are given in Å

Group Period	s-Block elements		p-Block elements				
	IA	IIA	IIIA	IVA	VA	VIA	VIIA
1	H 2.08 (+1) 0.79 (+1)						
2	Li 0.98 (+1)	Be 0.91 (+2)	B 0.20 (+3)	C 2.60 (+4) 0.15 (+4)	N 1.71 (+3) 0.11 (+5)	O 1.40 (+2) 0.09 (+6)	F 1.36 (+4) 0.07 (+7)
3	Na 0.95 (+1)	Mg 0.65 (+2)	Al 0.50 (+3)	Si 2.71 (+4) 0.41 (+4)	P 2.12 (+3) 0.34 (+5)	S 1.84 (+2) 0.28 (+6)	Cl 1.81 (+1) 0.26 (+7)
4	K 1.33 (+1)	Ca 0.99 (+2)	Ga 1.15 (+1) 0.62 (+3)	Ge 0.93 (+2) 0.52 (+4)	As 2.22 (+3) 0.47 (+5)	Se 1.98 (+2) 0.42 (+6)	Br 1.95 (+1) 0.39 (+7)
5	Rb 1.48 (+1)	Sr 1.13 (+2)	In 1.52 (+1) 0.81 (+3)	Sn 1.12 (+2) 0.71 (+4)	Sb 0.45 (+3) 0.62 (+5)	Te 2.21 (+2) 0.56 (+6)	I 2.16 (+1) 0.50 (+7)
6	Cs 1.69 (+1)	Ba 1.35 (+2)	Tl 1.40 (+1) 0.95 (+3)	Pb 1.78 (+2) 0.84 (+4)	Bi 1.20 (+3) 0.74 (+5)	Po	At
7	Fr 1.76 (+1)	Ra 1.40 (+2)					

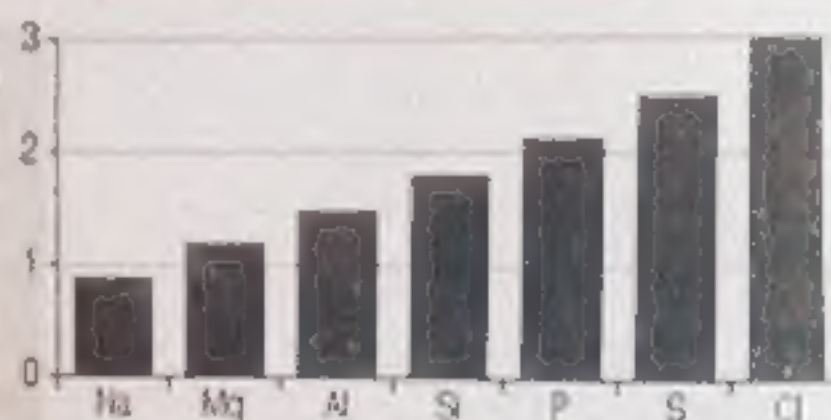
(3) TRENDS IN ELECTRONEGATIVITY

Definition

Electronegativity is a measure of the tendency of an atom to attract a bonding pair of electrons.

Scale of Electronegativity

- The Pauling scale is the most commonly used.
- Fluorine is the most electronegative element. It is assigned a value of 4.0.
- The values range down to caesium and francium which are the least electronegative at 0.7.



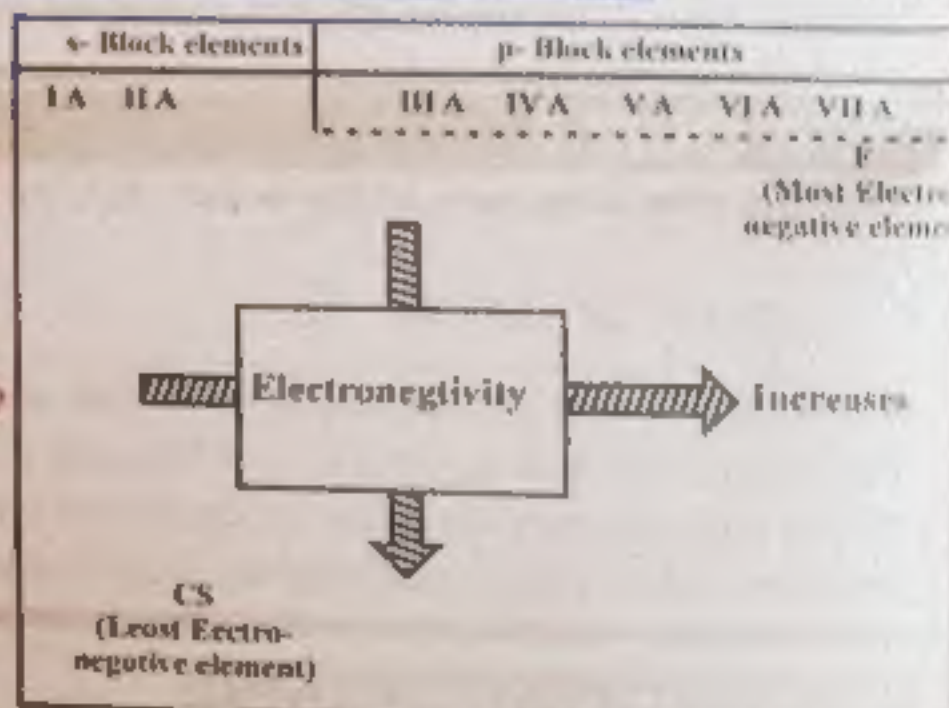
Trend or Variation in electronegativity along period:

The electronegative values increases from left to right in a period of s- and p-block elements.

It is due to following reasons.

- In a period, the atomic size decreases from left to right. Since, smaller atoms have greater tendency to attract the electrons towards themselves. Thus, smaller atoms have higher electronegativity values.
- In a period, values of ionization energy and electron affinity of the elements increase from left to right. Thus, the atoms of the elements with higher value of ionization energies and electron affinities also have higher electronegativities.

The variation of electronegativity in a period and a group of representative elements (s- and p-block elements) is shown in the figure.



Electronegativity cannot be assigned to Argon

It is because electronegativity is the tendency of an atom to attract a bonding pair of electrons. Since argon does not form covalent bonds, electronegativity cannot be assigned to it.

Another Trend Explanation

- Along period from left to right, the bonding electrons are always in the same level. Thus, they are always being shielded by the same inner electrons.
- However, the number of protons in the nucleus increases from left to right. Thus, due to increase in nuclear charge, it attracts the bonding pair more closely. Hence, electronegativity increases from left to right.

(B) PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

These properties depend upon the structure of elements.

STRUCTURES OF THE ELEMENTS

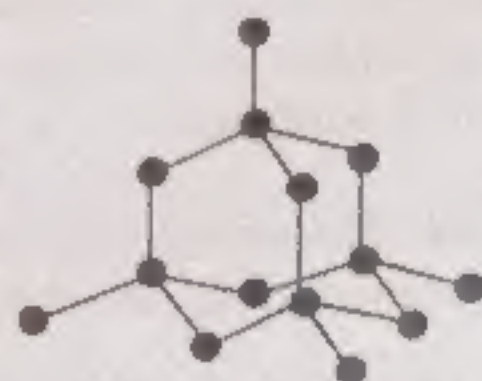
The structures of the elements changes along the period. In period 3, the first three (i.e. Na, Mg, Al) are metallic, silicon is giant covalent, and the remaining (i.e. P, S, Cl, Ar) are simple molecules.

(1) Three metallic structures

- Sodium, magnesium and aluminium all have metallic structures.
- In sodium, only one electron per atom is involved in the metallic bond i.e., the single 3s electron. In magnesium, both of its outer electrons are involved. In aluminium all three valence electrons are involved.
- The other difference is the way of packing of atoms in the metal crystal.
 - ✓ Sodium is 8-co-ordinated. Thus, each sodium atom is touched by only 8 other atoms.
 - ✓ Both magnesium and aluminium are 12-co-ordinated. However, both are packed in slightly different ways. This is a more efficient way to pack atoms. Thus, there less space is wasted in the metal structures and therefore, stronger bonding is present in the metal.

(2) A giant covalent structure

- Silicon has a giant covalent structure just like diamond as shown in the figure.
- The structure is held together by strong covalent bonds in all three dimensions.



(3) Four simple molecular structures

- The structures of phosphorus (i.e. white etc.) and sulphur (i.e. rhombic or monoclinic etc.) depends upon the allotropic forms of phosphorus or sulphur.
- The atoms in each of these molecules are held together by covalent bonds.
- In argon, there is no bond.
- In the liquid or solid state, the molecules are held close to each other by van der Waals dispersion forces.



a P₄ molecule



an S₈ molecule



a Cl₂ molecule



an Ar molecule

(1) ELECTRICAL CONDUCTIVITY

- Sodium, magnesium and aluminium** are all good conductors of electricity. **Among these conductivity increases from left to right (i.e., from sodium to magnesium to aluminium).** It is because, the number of valence (free) electrons increases. Sodium has one, magnesium has two and aluminium has three valence electrons.
- Silicon** is a semiconductor.
- The rest elements of period 3 (**phosphorus, sulphur, chlorine and argon**) do not conduct electricity.

Explanation

- The three metals (Na, Mg, Al) conduct electricity. It is because the delocalized electrons (electrons sea) are free to move throughout the solid or the liquid metal.
- In the silicon case, the semiconductors conduct electricity depending upon conditions of temperature etc. Silicon has diamond like structure. So, it must be an insulator. But it is a semiconductor and its conductivity increases with increase in temperature.
- The remaining elements do not conduct electricity because they are simple molecular substances. They do not have free electrons to carry current.

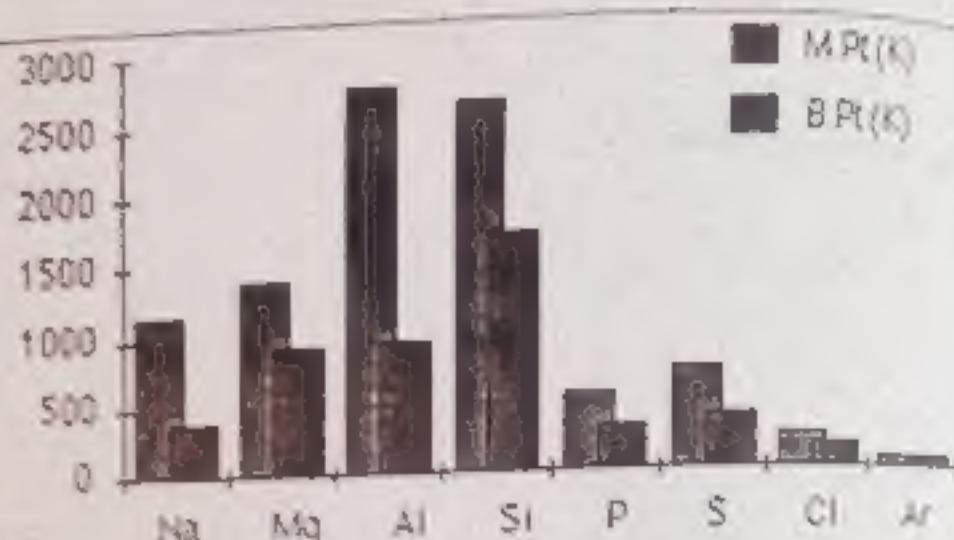
Exercise Q3 (i) (d) The melting and boiling points of the elements increase from left to right up to the middle in period 3 elements and decrease onward. Why?

(2) TRENDS IN MELTING AND BOILING POINTS

- The figure shows the variation of melting and boiling points of the elements across the period 3.
- The melting and boiling points are given in Kelvin rather than $^{\circ}\text{C}$ to avoid negative values.

Sodium, Magnesium and Aluminium

They possess metallic structures. The melting point and boiling points increases from sodium to aluminium. It is because Na provides one valence electron for bonding, Mg provides two electrons and aluminium provides three electrons.

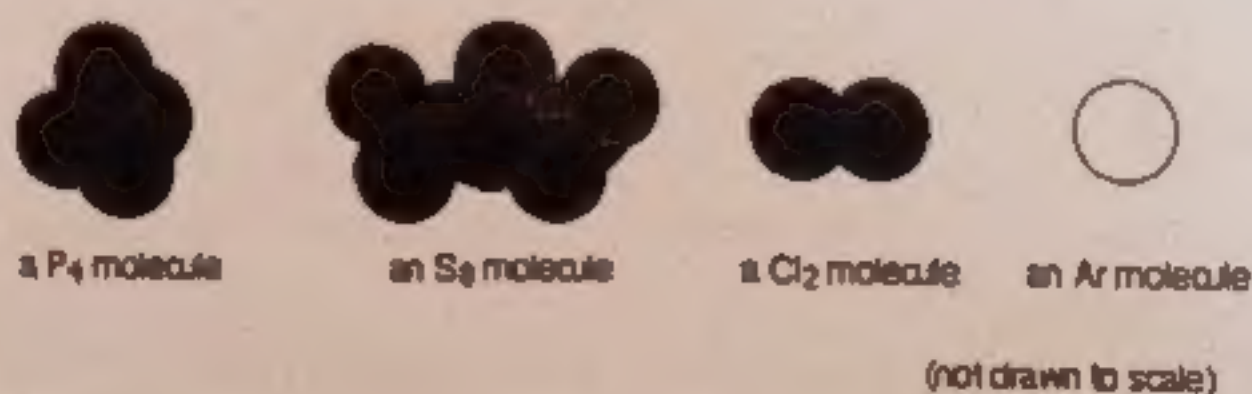


Silicon

- Silicon has high melting and boiling points because it is a giant covalent structure. It has strong covalent bonds which are difficult to break.
- Since silicon has a different type of bonds so its melting and boiling points should not be directly compare with that of aluminium.

The Four Molecular Elements

- Phosphorus, sulphur, chlorine and argon are simple molecular substances.
- These have only weak van der Waals forces between the molecules. Hence, their melting or boiling points are lower than those of the first four members of the period which have giant structures.
- The sizes of the melting and boiling points depends upon the sizes of the molecules. Generally, the melting and boiling points increase with increase in molecular size.



Phosphorus

Phosphorus consists of P_4 molecules. To melt phosphorus there is no need to break any covalent bonds. Only much weaker van der Waals forces between the molecules are broken. Thus, its melting point is low.

Sulphur

Sulphur consists of S_8 rings of atoms. So, its molecules are bigger (8 atoms) than phosphorus molecules (4 atoms). Hence, the van der Waals attractions will be stronger, leading to a higher melting and boiling point.

Chlorine

Chlorine, Cl_2 , is a much smaller molecule with comparatively weak van der Waals attractions. Hence, chlorine will have a lower melting and boiling point than sulphur or phosphorus.

Argon

Argon molecules are just single argon atoms, Ar. They have limited and very weak van der Waals forces. Hence, the melting and boiling points of argon are lower again.

QUICK QUIZ-2

- a) Write down the symbols of the elements in the third period of the periodic table (ending with the noble gas, argon) in order of increasing atomic number.
The elements are: Sodium (Na), Magnesium (Mg), Aluminium (Al), Silicon (Si), Phosphorus (P), Sulphur (S), Chlorine (Cl) and Argon (Ar).
- b) Which of these elements are
(i) s-block elements: Sodium (Na) and Magnesium (Mg). Since, both these have their valence electrons in s-orbital.
(ii) p-block elements: Aluminium (Al), Silicon (Si), Phosphorus (P), Sulphur (S), Chlorine (Cl) and Argon (Ar). Since all these have their valence electrons in p-orbital.
(iii) d-block elements: There are no d-block elements in Period 3, since none of the period 3 elements have valence electron in d-orbital.
- c) i) Write the empirical formula of the chloride formed by the elements of atomic number 13.
Element with atomic number 13 is Aluminium (Al). Thus the formula of its chloride is $AlCl_3$.
However, it can exist in dimeric form, Al_2Cl_6 , as well.
- ii) Describe briefly how you could prepare a sample of this chloride.
The aluminium burns in the stream of chlorine to produce very pale yellow aluminium chloride.
$$2Al + 3Cl_2 \rightarrow 2AlCl_3$$

(C) CHEMICAL REACTIONS OF THE PERIOD 3 ELEMENTS

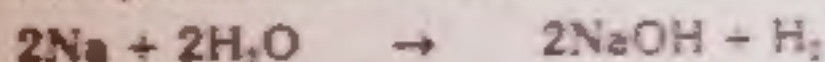
The reactions of Period 3 elements are given below:

Exercise Q3 (i) (c): Describe the trends in reaction of period 3 elements with water.

1) REACTIONS WITH WATER

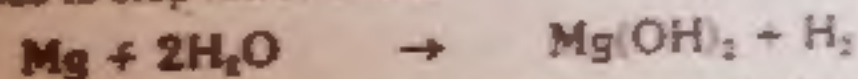
Sodium

- Sodium has a very exothermic reaction with cold water producing hydrogen gas and a colourless solution of sodium hydroxide. The reaction is so much exothermic that the liberated hydrogen catches fire.



Magnesium

- Magnesium has a very slight reaction with cold water, but burns in steam.
- A very clean coil of magnesium dropped into cold water finally gets covered in small bubbles of hydrogen which float it to the surface.
- Magnesium hydroxide is formed as a very thin layer on the magnesium. It acts as a protective layer and thus tends to stop the reaction.

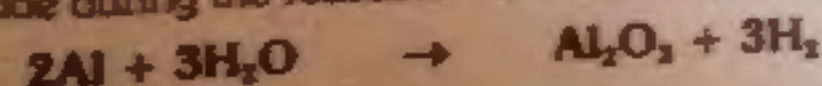


- Magnesium burns in steam with its typical white flame to produce white magnesium oxide and hydrogen.



Aluminium

- When Aluminium powder is heated in steam, it produces hydrogen and aluminium oxide.
- The reaction is relatively slow because of the strong aluminium oxide layer on the metal and formation of more oxide during the reaction. The oxide layer acts as a protective layer and thus slows down the reaction.

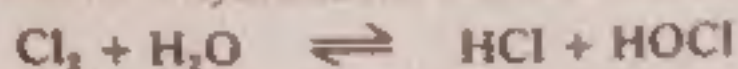


Phosphorus and sulphur

These have no reaction with water.

Chlorine

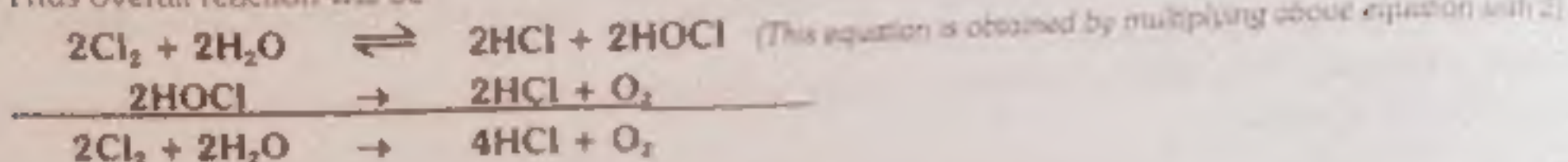
- Chlorine dissolves in water to some extent to give a green solution. A reversible reaction takes place to produce a mixture of hydrochloric acid and chloric(I) acid (hypochlorous acid).



- In the presence of sunlight, the chloric(I) acid slowly decomposes to produce more hydrochloric acid, releasing oxygen gas.



- Thus overall reaction will be



Argon

There is no reaction between argon and water

(2) REACTIONS WITH OXYGEN

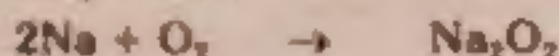
Sodium

- Sodium burns in oxygen with an orange flame to produce a white solid mixture of sodium oxide and sodium peroxide.

For the simple oxide

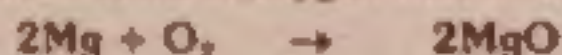


For the peroxide



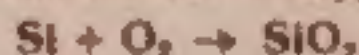
Magnesium

Magnesium burns in oxygen with an intense white flame to give white solid magnesium oxide.



Silicon

Silicon will burn in oxygen if heated strongly. Silicon dioxide is produced.



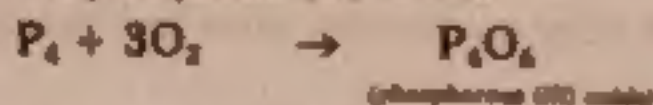
Phosphorus

- White phosphorus catches fire spontaneously in air. It burns with a white flame and producing clouds of white smoke which is a mixture of phosphorus(III) oxide and phosphorus(V) oxide.

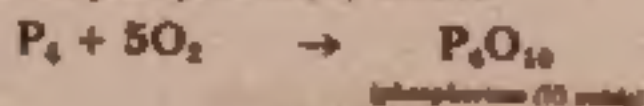
The proportions of two oxides depend on the amount of oxygen available.

- In an excess of oxygen, the product will be almost completely phosphorus (V) oxide.

For the phosphorus(III) oxide:

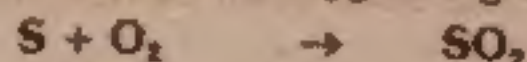


For the phosphorus(V) oxide:



Sulphur

- Sulphur burns in air or oxygen on gentle heating with a pale blue flame. It produces colourless sulphur dioxide gas.



Chlorine and argon

- Despite having several oxides, chlorine won't react directly with oxygen. Argon does not react either.

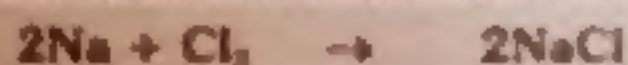
Properties of the oxides of elements in Period 3

Formula of Oxide →	Na ₂ O	MgO	Al ₂ O ₃	SiO ₂	P ₄ O ₁₀ (P ₂ O ₅)	SO ₂ (SO ₂)	Cl ₂ O ₇ (Cl ₂ O)
State of Oxide	solid	solid	solid	solid	solid	liquid	liquid
Conduction of Electricity by Molten or liquid Oxide	good	good	good	very poor	Nil	Nil	Nil
Structure of oxide	Giant Structure				Simple molecular structure		
Enthalpy change of Formation of oxide at 298K/kJ mol ⁻¹	-416	-602	-1676	-910	-2984	-395	80
Enthalpy change of Formation of oxide at 298K/kJ mol ⁻¹ kJ/kJ	-416	-602	-839	-455	-298	-132	80
Effect of adding oxide to water	reacts to form NaOH (aq) alkaline solution	reacts to form Mg(OH) ₂	does not react with water but it is amphoteric	does not react with water but it is acidic	P ₄ O ₁₀ reacts to form H ₃ PO ₄ (acid solution)	SO ₂ reacts to form H ₂ SO ₄ (acid solution)	Cl ₂ O ₇ reacts to form HClO ₄ (acid solution)
Nature of Oxide	Basic (alkaline)	Basic (weakly alkaline)	Amphoteric	Acidic	Acidic	Acidic	Acidic

(3) REACTIONS WITH CHLORINE

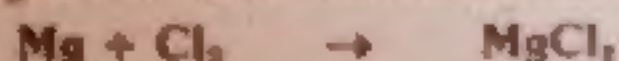
Sodium

- Sodium burns in chlorine with a bright orange flame. White solid sodium chloride is produced.



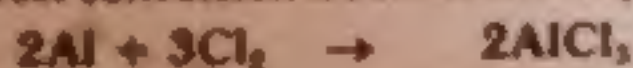
Magnesium

- Magnesium burns with its intense white flame to give white magnesium chloride



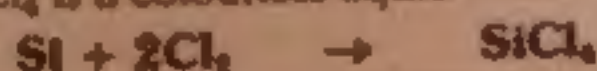
Aluminium

- Aluminium is often reacted with chlorine by passing dry chlorine over aluminium foil heated in a long tube
- The aluminium burns in the stream of chlorine to produce very pale yellow aluminium chloride. This sublimes (direct conversion from solid to vapour) and collects in the cooler part of the tube



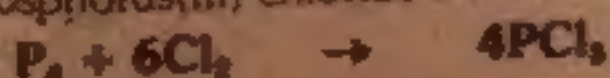
Silicon

- When chlorine is passed over silicon powder heated in a tube, it reacts to produce silicon tetrachloride.
- SiCl₄ is a colourless liquid which vaporises and can be condensed further along the apparatus.



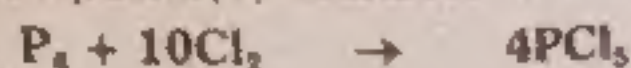
Phosphorus

- White phosphorus burns in chlorine to produce a mixture of two chlorides, phosphorus(III) chloride and phosphorus(V) chloride (phosphorus trichloride, PCl₃ and phosphorus pentachloride, PCl₅).
- Phosphorus(III) chloride is a colourless fuming liquid.



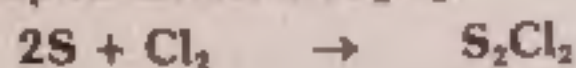
CH # 13: s and p-Block Elements

- Phosphorus(V) chloride is an off-white (going towards yellow) solid.



Sulphur

- When a stream of chlorine is passed over some heated sulphur, it reacts to form an orange, evil-smelling liquid, disulphur dichloride, S_2Cl_2 .



Chlorine and Argon

- Chlorine gas (Cl_2) cannot react with itself.
- Argon does not react with chlorine.

(D) PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF THE OXIDES

- The relationship between the physical properties of the oxides of Period 3 elements (sodium to chlorine) and their structures is given below.
- Argon is omitted because it does not form an oxide.

THE OXIDES

The important oxides of Period 3 elements are:

Na_2O	MgO	Al_2O_3	SiO_2	P_4O_{10}	SO_3	Cl_2O_7
				P_4O_6	SO_2	Cl_2O

- Those oxides in the first row are known as the **highest oxides** of the various elements, i.e. In these oxides Period 3 elements are in their highest oxidation states.
- In highest oxides, all the valence electrons in the Period 3 element are involved in the bonding.
e.g. one electron for sodium, two for magnesium, three for aluminium and so on.

(i) STRUCTURES OF OXIDES

The trend in structure changes from the metallic oxides containing giant structures of ions on the left of period via a giant covalent oxide (silicon dioxide) in the middle to molecular oxides on the right.

(i) The metallic oxides (e.g Sodium, Magnesium, aluminium etc.)

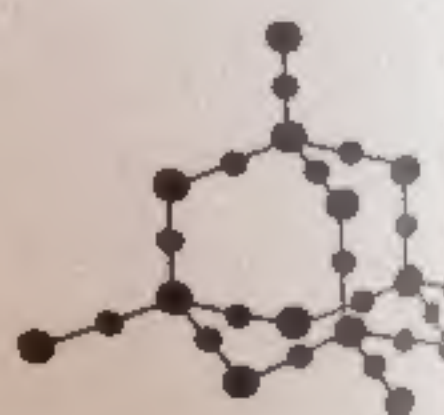
- Sodium, magnesium and aluminium oxides structure/diagram is same as sodium chloride. i.e. They exist as ionic crystalline solids.

(ii) Giant Covalent Oxides [e.g Silicon dioxide (silicon(IV) oxide)]

- Crystalline silicon has the same structure as diamond. In this structure atoms of both silicon and oxygen are present.
- In SiO_2 , each silicon atom is bridged to its neighbouring silicon by an oxygen atom.

(iii) The molecular oxides

(e.g. Phosphorus, sulphur and chlorine oxides)



(A) THE PHOSPHORUS OXIDES

Phosphorus has two common oxides,

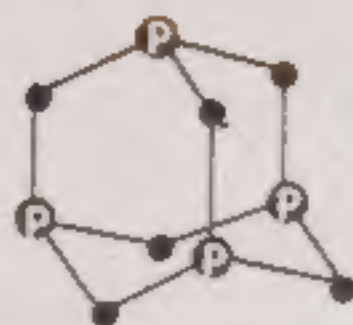
- Phosphorus(III) oxide, P_4O_6
- Phosphorus(V) oxide, P_4O_{10}



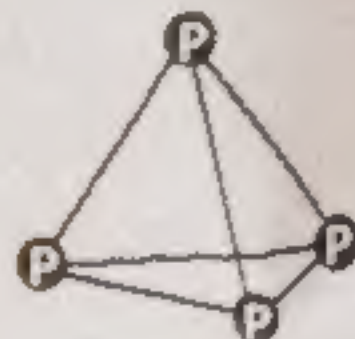
a P_4 molecule

(I) PHOSPHORUS(III) OXIDE (P_4O_6)

- It is a white solid
- Its melting point is 24°C
- Its boiling point is 173°C .
- The structure of P_4O_6 can be obtained starting from a P_4 molecule which is a little tetrahedron.
 - ✓ Pull P_4 structure apart to see the bonds
 - ✓ Then link all the phosphorus atoms via oxygen atoms. These will be in a V-shape structure (like in water).
- The phosphorus is using only three of its outer electrons (the unpaired p electrons) to form bonds with the oxygens.

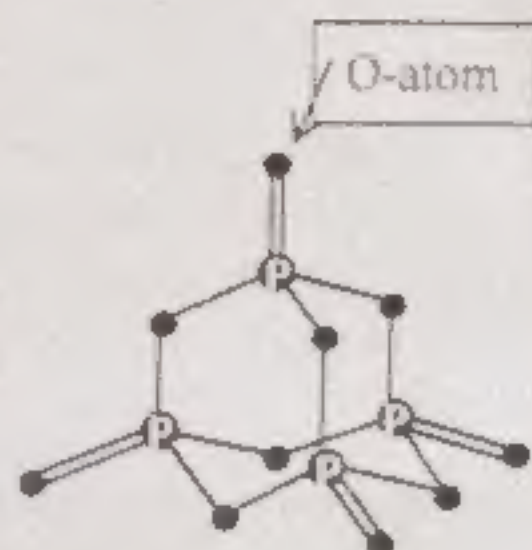


1 P_4 molecule



1 P_4 molecule

3



1 P_4O_6 molecule

(II) PHOSPHORUS(V) OXIDE (P_4O_{10})

- It is a white solid
- It sublimes (turning straight from solid to vapour) at 300°C .
- Solid phosphorus(V) oxide exists in several different forms. Some of these are polymeric. The most common is the simple molecular form. This is also present in the vapour.
- In this oxide, the phosphorus uses all five of its outer electrons in the bonding.
- This is most easily drawn starting from P_4O_6 . The other four oxygens are attached to the four phosphorus atoms via double bonds.

3) THE SULPHUR OXIDES

Sulphur has two common oxides

(i) Sulphur dioxide (sulphur(IV) oxide), SO_2 .

(ii) Sulphur trioxide (sulphur(VI) oxide), SO_3 .

(i) SULPHUR DIOXIDE (SO_2)

- It is a colourless gas at room temperature.
- It has choking smell which can be recognised easily.
- It consists of simple SO_2 molecules.
- The sulphur uses 4 of its outer electrons to form the double bonds with the oxygen, leaving the other two as a lone pair on the sulphur.
- The bent shape of SO_2 is due to this lone pair.

Remember! (the similar explanation can be given for P as well)

S (ground state)	$3s$	$3p$	$3d$
	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow$	$ $
	$3s$	$3p$	$3d$
	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow$	$ $
	$3s$	$3p$	$3d$
	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow$	$ $

if one electron jumps then

S (excited state)	$3s$	$3p$	$3d$
	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow $	$\uparrow $
	$3s$	$3p$	$3d$
	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow $	$\uparrow $
	$3s$	$3p$	$3d$
	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow $	$\uparrow $

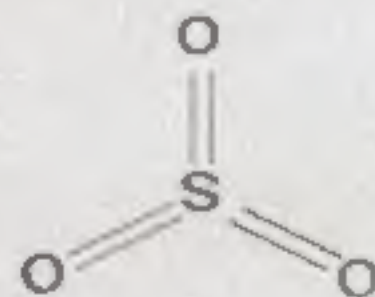
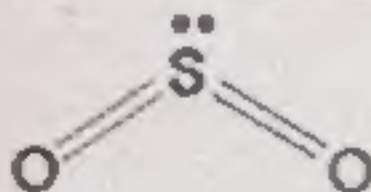
(one pair)

if Second electron jumps then

S (excited state)	$3s$	$3p$	$3d$
	\uparrow	$\uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow $	$\uparrow\downarrow $
	$3s$	$3p$	$3d$
	\uparrow	$\uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow $	$\uparrow\downarrow $
	$3s$	$3p$	$3d$
	\uparrow	$\uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow $	$\uparrow\downarrow $

(Four unpaired electrons, so four bonds are formed)

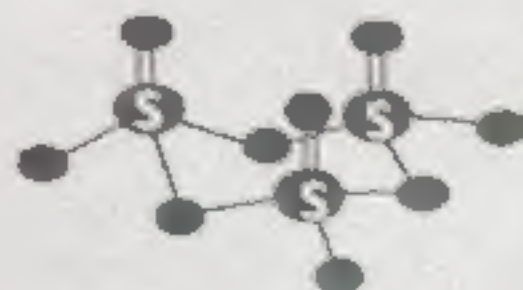
(Six unpaired electrons, so six bonds are formed)



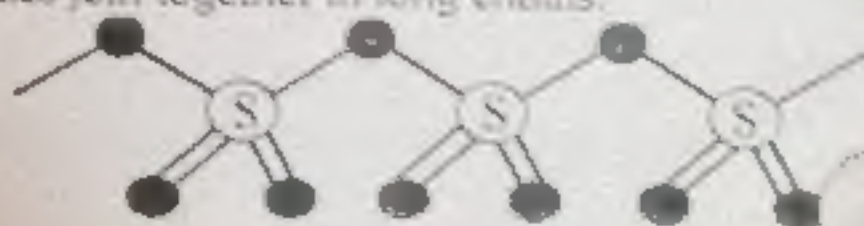
(ii) SULPHUR TRIOXIDE (SO_3)

- It is a white solid
- It has low melting and boiling point.
- Gaseous sulphur trioxide consists of simple SO_3 molecules in which all six of the sulphur's outer electrons are involved in the bonding.

- There are various forms of solid sulphur trioxide. The simplest one is a trimer, S_3O_9 , where three SO_3 molecules are joined up and arranged in a ring.



- There are also other polymeric forms in which the SO_3 molecules join together in long chains. So, the simple molecules join up in this way to make bigger structures. Thus, it makes the sulphur trioxide a solid rather than a gas.



(C) THE CHLORINE OXIDES

Chlorine forms several oxides. Two are important

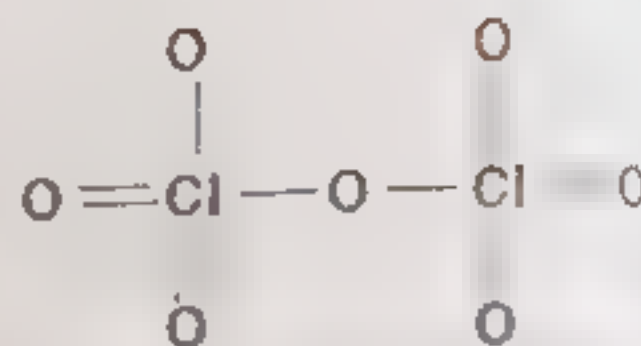
- (i) Chlorine(I) oxide, Cl_2O ,
- (ii) Chlorine(VII) oxide, Cl_2O_7

(i) CHLORINE(I) OXIDE (Cl_2O)

- It is a yellowish-red gas at room temperature
- It consists of simple small molecules
- In this structure chlorine uses its one outer electron and bonds with oxygen

**(ii) CHLORINE(VII) OXIDE (Cl_2O_7)**

- It is a colourless oily liquid at room temperature
- In chlorine(VII) oxide the chlorine uses all of its seven outer electrons and bonds with oxygen. This produces a much bigger molecule

**(ii) MELTING AND BOILING POINTS**

- The giant structures (the metal oxides and silicon dioxide) will have high melting and boiling points because a lot of energy is needed to break the strong bonds (ionic or covalent) operating in the dimensions
- The oxides of phosphorus, sulphur and chlorine consist of individual molecules. Some are small and some others polymeric
- The attractive forces between these molecules will be van der Waals dispersion and dipole-dipole interactions. These vary depending on the size, shape and polarity of the various molecules. However, these forces are always much weaker than the ionic or covalent bonds of a giant structure. Thus, these oxides tend to be gases, liquids or low melting point solids

(iii) ELECTRICAL CONDUCTIVITY

- None of these oxides has any free or mobile electrons. Thus, none of them will conduct electricity when they are solid
- The ionic oxides can conduct electricity in molten state. It is because the ions become free in molten state. So, the movement of the ions towards the electrodes causes electrical conductivity. Thus, they undergo **electrolysis** when they are molten

(iv) ACID-BASE BEHAVIOUR OF THE OXIDES

The reactions of the oxides of Period 3 elements (sodium to chlorine) with water and with acids or bases show their acid-base behaviour

(A) TREND IN ACID-BASE BEHAVIOUR

A brief summary is given below

- Generally, basicity of oxides decreases and acidity increases from left to right
- The increasing acidic order from left to right is shown in Period 3 oxides

Na_2O
Strongly
Basic

MgO
Basic

Al_2O_3
Amphoteric

SiO_2
Weakly
Acidic

P_2O_5
Acidic

SO_2
Strongly
Acidic

Cl_2O_7
Very
strongly acidic

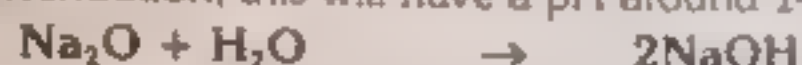
- An amphoteric oxide is one which shows both acidic and basic properties.

REACTIONS OF OXIDES WITH WATER, ACIDS AND BASES: CHEMISTRY OF THE INDIVIDUAL OXIDES**SODIUM OXIDE (Na_2O)**

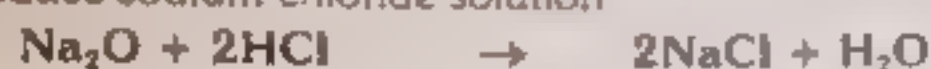
Sodium oxide is a simple strong basic oxide. It is basic because it contains the oxide ion (O^{2-}) which is a very strong base with a high tendency to combine with hydrogen ions.

Reaction with water

Sodium oxide reacts exothermically with cold water to produce a strong basic oxide solution. Depending on its concentration, this will have a pH around 14.

**Reaction with acids**

As a strong base, sodium oxide also reacts with acids, e.g., it reacts with dilute hydrochloric acid to produce sodium chloride solution.

**MAGNESIUM OXIDE (MgO)**

- Magnesium oxide is a simple basic oxide because it also contains oxide ions.
- However, it is less basic than sodium oxide because the oxide ions are not much free.
- In the sodium oxide case, the solid is held together by attractions between $1+ \text{Na}^+$ and $2- \text{O}^{2-}$ ions. In the magnesium oxide case, the attractions are between $2+ \text{Mg}^{2+}$ and $2- \text{O}^{2-}$. Thus, it takes more energy to break these. So, it is a relatively a weaker base.

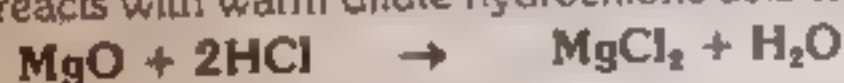
Reaction with water

- If some white magnesium oxide powder is shaken with water, apparently, no reaction occurs.
- However, the pH of the liquid goes around pH 9 showing that solution has become slightly alkaline.
- It shows that there must have been some slight reaction with the water to produce hydroxide ions in solution. Some magnesium hydroxide is formed in the reaction. Since Mg(OH)_2 is almost insoluble in water, therefore, only some hydroxide ions actually go into the solution and it becomes slightly alkaline.

**Reaction with acids**

Magnesium oxide reacts with acids to produce salts.

e.g. It reacts with warm dilute hydrochloric acid to give magnesium chloride solution.

**ALUMINIUM OXIDE (Al_2O_3)**

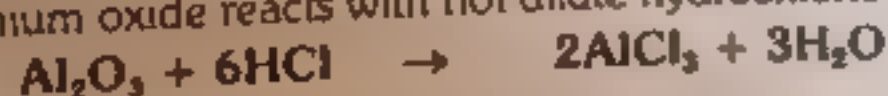
It is an amphoteric oxide. It gives reactions as both a base and an acid.

Reaction with water

Aluminium oxide does not react in a simple way with water and does not dissolve in it. Although it contains oxide ions, they are held too strongly in the solid lattice to react with the water.

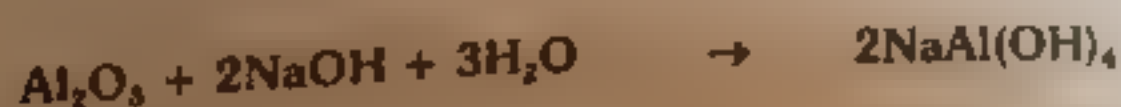
Reaction with acids

Aluminium oxide reacts with hot dilute hydrochloric acid to give aluminium chloride solution.

**Reaction with bases**

Aluminium oxide also shows acidic nature as it reacts with bases such as sodium hydroxide.

- By this reaction various aluminates are formed. Aluminates are compounds where aluminium is in the negative ion. This is possible because aluminium has the ability to form covalent bonds.
- With hot, concentrated sodium hydroxide solution, aluminium oxide reacts to form sodium tetrahydroxoaluminate.

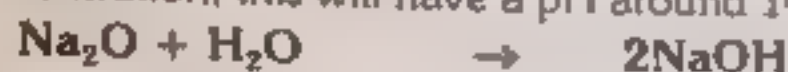


(B) REACTIONS OF OXIDES WITH WATER, ACIDS AND BASES: CHEMISTRY OF THE INDIVIDUAL OXIDES**SODIUM OXIDE (Na_2O)**

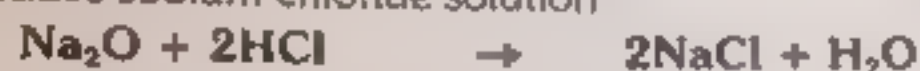
Sodium oxide is a simple strongly basic oxide. It is basic because it contains the oxide ion O^{2-} , which is a very strong base with a high tendency to combine with hydrogen ions.

Reaction with water

Sodium oxide reacts exothermically with cold water to produce sodium hydroxide solution. Depending on its concentration, this will have a pH around 14.

**Reaction with acids**

As a strong base, sodium oxide also reacts with acids. e.g., it would react with dilute hydrochloric acid to produce sodium chloride solution.

**MAGNESIUM OXIDE (MgO)**

- Magnesium oxide is a simple basic oxide, because it also contains oxide ions.
- However, it is less basic than sodium oxide because the oxide ions are not much free.
- In the sodium oxide case, the solid is held together by attractions between $1 + \text{Na}^+$ and 2O^{2-} ions. In the magnesium oxide case, the attractions are between $2 + (\text{Mg}^{2+})$ and 2O^{2-} . Thus it takes more energy to break these. So, it is a relatively a weaker base.

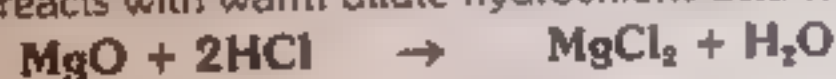
Reaction with water

- If some white magnesium oxide powder is shaken with water, apparently no reaction occurs.
- However, the pH of the liquid goes around pH 9 showing that solution has become slightly alkaline.
- It shows that there must have been some slight reaction with the water to produce hydroxide ions in solution. Some magnesium hydroxide is formed in the reaction. Since Mg(OH)_2 is almost insoluble in water, therefore, only some hydroxide ions actually go into the solution and it becomes slightly alkaline.

**Reaction with acids**

Magnesium oxide reacts with acids to produce salts.

e.g. It reacts with warm dilute hydrochloric acid to give magnesium chloride solution.

**ALUMINIUM OXIDE (Al_2O_3)**

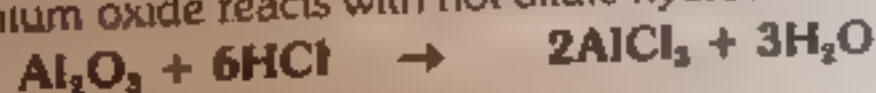
It is an amphoteric oxide. It gives reactions as both a base and an acid.

Reaction with water

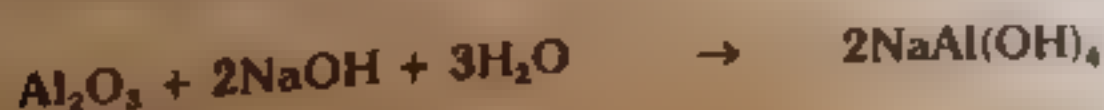
Aluminium oxide does not react in a simple way with water and does not dissolve in it. Although it contains oxide ions, they are held too strongly in the solid lattice to react with the water.

Reaction with acids

Aluminium oxide reacts with hot dilute hydrochloric acid to give aluminium chloride solution.

**Reaction with bases**

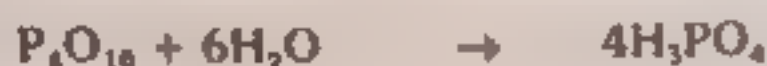
- Aluminium oxide also shows acidic nature as it reacts with bases such as sodium hydroxide solution.
- By this reaction various aluminates are formed. Aluminates are compounds where aluminium is bonded in the negative ion. This is possible because aluminium has the ability to form covalent bonds.
- With hot, concentrated sodium hydroxide solution, aluminium oxide reacts to form sodium tetrahydroxoaluminate.



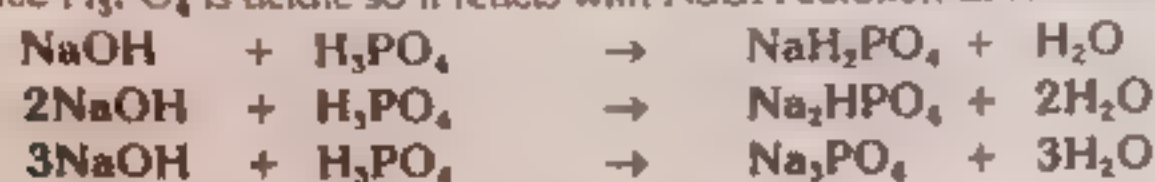
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PHOSPHORUS(V) OXIDE (P_4O_{10})Reaction with Water

Phosphorus(V) oxide reacts violently with water to give a solution containing a mixture of acids the nature of which depends on the conditions. Consider the reaction of phosphorus(V) oxide with water to form phosphoric acid, H_3PO_4 (also known, just as phosphoric acid or as orthophosphoric acid).

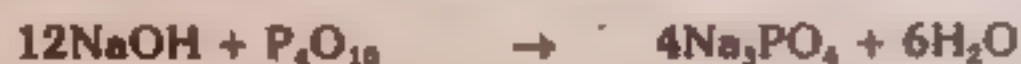
Reaction with Base:

Since H_3PO_4 is acidic so it reacts with NaOH solution as follows



If phosphorus(V) oxide is reacted directly with sodium hydroxide solution then same possible salts are obtained

e.g.,

Remember

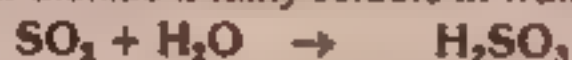
Phosphorus(V) oxide reacts with water to form phosphoric acid. This reaction is exothermic. Phosphorus(V) oxide reacts with sodium hydroxide to form sodium phosphate and water. This reaction is also exothermic.

THE SULPHUR OXIDES (SO_2)

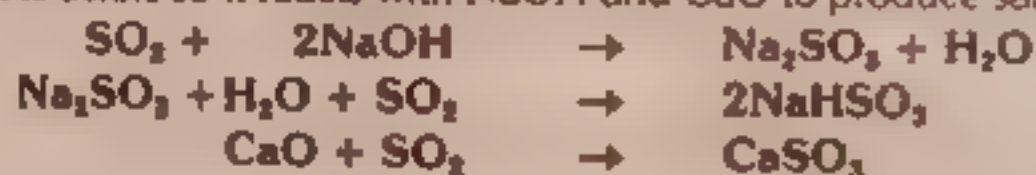
Two oxides are more important: sulphur dioxide, SO_2 , and sulphur trioxide, SO_3 .

SULPHUR DIOXIDEReaction with Water:

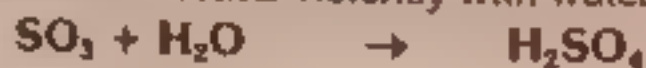
Sulphur dioxide is fairly soluble in water, reacting with it to give a solution of sulphurous acid, H_2SO_3 .

Reaction with Base:

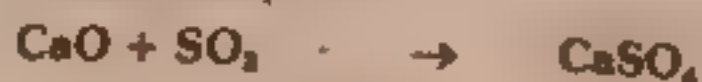
Since it is acidic so it reacts with NaOH and CaO to produce salts

**SULPHUR TRIOXIDE**

- Sulphur trioxide reacts violently with water to produce a fog of concentrated sulphuric acid droplets

Reaction with Base:

- SO_3 reacts with NaOH aqueous solution to give Na_2SO_4
- In principle, sodium hydrogensulphate ($NaHSO_4$) can be obtained by using half mole sodium hydroxide per mole of SO_3 that only one acidic hydrogen of H_2SO_4 is used
- Sulphur trioxide itself will also react directly with bases to form sulphates e.g. it will react with calcium oxide to form calcium sulphate

**THE CHLORINE OXIDES (Cl_2O_7)**

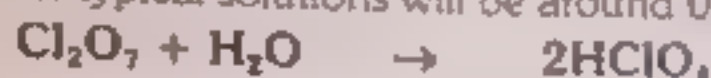
- Chlorine forms several oxides, but two are more important, chlorine(VII) oxide, Cl_2O_7 , and chlorine(I) oxide, Cl_2O
- Chlorine(VII) oxide is also known as dichlorine heptoxide, and chlorine(I) oxide as dichlorine monoxide

CHLORINE(VII) OXIDE

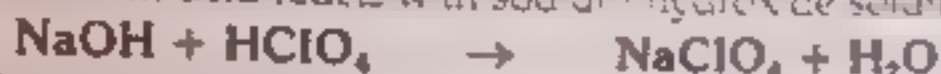
- Chlorine(VII) oxide is the highest oxide of chlorine. It means that the chlorine is in its maximum oxidation state of +7.
- It has same trend of the highest oxides of the Period 3 elements. Thus, it shows to be a very strongly acidic.

Reaction with Water:

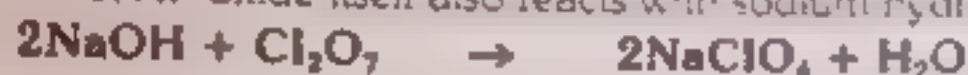
- Chlorine(VII) oxide reacts with water to give the very strong acid, chloric(VII) acid. It is also known as perchloric acid.
- The pH of typical solutions will be around 0 just like sulphuric acid.

**Reaction with Base:**

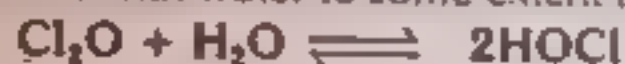
- Chloric(VII) acid reacts with sodium hydroxide solution to form a solution of sodium chlorate(VII).



- Chlorine(VII) oxide itself also reacts with sodium hydroxide solution to give the same product.

**CHLORINE(I) OXIDE****Reaction with Base:**

- Chlorine(I) oxide is far less acidic than chlorine(VII) oxide.
- It reacts with water to some extent to give chloric(I) acid, HOCl. It is also known as hypochlorous acid.

**Reaction with Base:**

- Chloric(I) acid reacts with sodium hydroxide solution to give a solution of sodium chlorate(I) (sodium hypochlorite).



- Chlorine(I) oxide also reacts directly with sodium hydroxide to give the same product.

**QUICK QUIZ-3**

(a) What is the nature of bonds in the oxides formed when Na, Mg, Al and S react with excess oxygen?

Na, Mg and Al form ionic oxides. Therefore, they exist as ionic crystal structures.

S forms SO_2 and SO_3 with oxygen. These oxides have covalent bonding in them.

(b) How do these oxides react with

(i) Water

Sodium oxide reacts exothermically with cold water to produce sodium hydroxide solution.

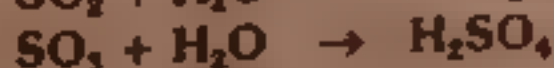
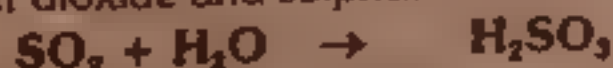


Magnesium oxide reacts with water slowly to produce alkaline solution.



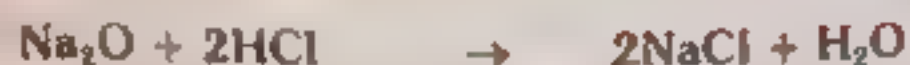
Aluminium oxide does not react with water. It is due to the protective coating on it which prevents it from reaction. Or the reaction may be very very slow.

Sulphur dioxide and sulphur trioxide react with water to produce H_2SO_3 and H_2SO_4 respectively.



(ii) Dilute acids

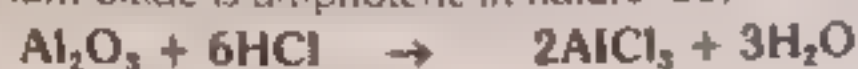
Sodium oxide is a strong base. So, it reacts with acids to form salts.



Magnesium oxide is basic in nature. So, it reacts with acids to form salts.

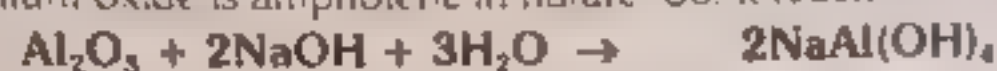


Aluminium oxide is amphoteric in nature. So, it reacts with acids to form salts.

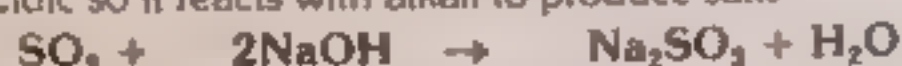


(iii) Alkali

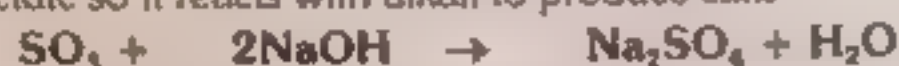
Aluminium oxide is amphoteric in nature. So, it reacts with alkali to form salts.



Since SO_2 is acidic so it reacts with alkali to produce salts.



Since SO_3 is acidic so it reacts with alkali to produce salts.



(c) Magnesium chloride is a high melting point solid, aluminium chloride is a solid which sublimes readily, about 180°C and silicon tetrachloride is a volatile liquid. Explain the nature of the chemical bond in these chlorides and show how this accounts for the above differences in volatility.

- Magnesium chloride is an ionic solid in which ions are held together by strong ionic bonds. A lot of energy is needed to break these strong forces. Thus, it has high melting point.
- At room temperature, solid aluminium chloride has an ionic lattice with a lot of covalent character. At temperatures around $180 - 190^\circ\text{C}$, aluminium chloride converts to a molecular form, Al_2Cl_6 . It is held together by weak intermolecular forces. Hence, it melts or sublimes easily.
- Silicon tetrachloride is a simple covalent chloride. The electronegativity difference between silicon and chlorine is very small to form ionic bonds. Thus, the only attractions between the molecules are weak Van der Waals dispersion forces. So, it is a volatile liquid.

Important

(Important Concept, Not in Syllabus)

Solubility of Salts in Water

The solubility of salts in water is mostly controlled by two factors.

(i) Lattice Energy:

Briefly, it is the amount of energy required to break the crystal lattice of a salt.

- Generally, higher the lattice energy, lower the solubility and vice versa.
- Small size ions show tight packing, therefore, their salts possess high lattice energies and as a result have low solubilities.

(ii) Hydration Energy:

Briefly, it is the amount of energy released when one mole of an ion dissolves in water to form infinite dilution.

- Generally, higher the hydration energy of ions of a salt, higher the solubility of salt.
- Small size ions dissolve easily in water, therefore, they possess high hydration energies and as a result their salts have high solubilities.

These two factors work opposite to each other, therefore,

- In one condition, lattice energy overcomes hydration energy and thus controls the solubility. e.g., in case of hydroxides of alkaline earth metals.
- In other condition, hydration energy overcomes lattice energy and thus controls the solubility. e.g., in case of sulphates of alkaline earth metals.

(E) CHLORIDES OF THE PERIOD 3 ELEMENTS

(i) THE STRUCTURES

- Sodium chloride and magnesium chloride are ionic. These consist of a regular lattice of ions in the solid state.
- Aluminium chloride and phosphorus pentachloride are covalent when the solid turns to a liquid or vapour.
- The others are simple covalent molecules.

(ii) MELTING AND BOILING POINTS

- Sodium and magnesium chlorides have high melting and boiling points due to strong ionic attractions and a large amount of energy is needed to break these.
- The rest are liquids or low melting solids. Phosphorus(V) chloride is a liquid at room temperature.
- In these the situation is quite different. They are simple molecules held together by forces such as van der Waals forces.
- These vary depending on the size and mass of the molecule but will always be far weaker than ionic bonds.

(iii) ELECTRICAL CONDUCTIVITY

- Sodium and magnesium chlorides are ionic and so will undergo electrolysis.
- Electricity is carried by the movement of the ions and not the electrons.
- In the aluminium chloride and phosphorus(V) chloride cases, the ions are not free to move. In the liquid (where it exists) they have converted into a covalent form, and so don't conduct.
- The rest of the chlorides don't conduct electricity, either in the solid or liquid state, as they have no mobile electrons.

(iv) REACTIONS WITH WATER

- Sodium and magnesium chloride just dissolve in water.
- The other chlorides all react with water in different ways.
- The reaction with water is known as hydrolysis.

THE INDIVIDUAL CHLORIDES

SODIUM CHLORIDE, NaCl

- Sodium chloride is a simple ionic compound consisting of sodium and chloride ions as shown in the figure.
- The strong attractions between the positive and negative ions require a lot of heat energy to break. Thus, sodium chloride has high melting and boiling points.
- It does not conduct electricity in the solid state because there are no mobile electrons and the ions are not free to move.
- However, when it melts it undergoes electrolysis.
- Sodium chloride simply dissolves in water to give a neutral solution.



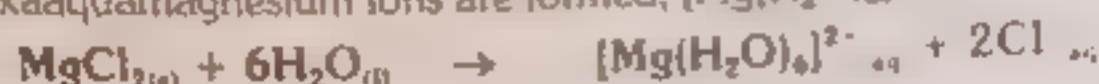
MAGNESIUM CHLORIDE, MgCl_2

- Magnesium chloride is also ionic, but with a more complicated arrangement of the ions to allow for having twice as many chloride ions as magnesium ions.
- Again, lots of heat energy is needed to overcome the attractions between the ions, so the melting and boiling points are again high.
- Solid magnesium chloride is a non-conductor of electricity because the ions are not free to move.
- However, it undergoes electrolysis when the ions become free on melting.

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418

- Magnesium chloride dissolves in water to give a fairly acidic solution (pH 9.5).
- When magnesium ions are broken off the crystal lattice and surrounded by water molecules, the water molecules try to get as close as possible to the magnesium ions and lone pairs on surrounding water molecules.
- Hexaaquamagnesium ions are formed, $[\text{Mg}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$



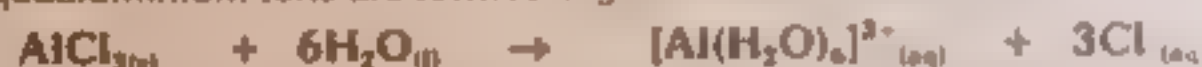
- Ions of this sort are acidic

ALUMINIUM CHLORIDE, AlCl_3

- At room temperature, solid aluminium chloride has a low melting point.
- At temperatures around $180 - 190^\circ\text{C}$ (depending on the pressure) it exists in a molecular form, Al_2Cl_6 . This causes it to melt or vaporise and so it is a poor conductor of electricity because of the lack of intermolecular attractions.



- As the temperature increases a bit more, it increasingly breaks up into ions.
- Solid aluminium chloride does not conduct electricity at room temperature because the ions are not free to move. Molten aluminium chloride (only possible at increased temperatures) does conduct electricity because still there are no ions.
- The reaction of aluminium chloride with water is surprising. If you add aluminium chloride, you get a violent reaction producing clouds of steamy fumes.
- The aluminium chloride reacts with the water rather than just dissolving. Hexaaquaaluminium ions are formed together with chloride ions.



This is very similar to the magnesium chloride equation. The only difference is the charge on the hexaaquaaluminium ion.

SILICON TETRACHLORIDE, SiCl_4

- Silicon tetrachloride is a simple covalent chloride. There is not enough electronegativity difference between the silicon and the chlorine to form ionic bonds.
- Silicon tetrachloride is a colourless liquid at room temperature which fumes in moist air. The only attractions between the molecules are van der Waals dispersion forces.
- It does not conduct electricity because of the lack of ions or mobile electrons.
- It fumes in moist air because it reacts with water in the air to produce hydrogen chloride fumes.
 - ✓ If water is added to silicon tetrachloride, there is a violent reaction to produce hydrogen chloride fumes.
 - ✓ In a large excess of water, the silicon tetrachloride will dissolve to give a solution containing hydrochloric acid.



THE PHOSPHORUS CHLORIDES

There are two phosphorus chlorides: phosphorus(III) chloride PCl_3 , and phosphorus(V) chloride PCl_5 .

PHOSPHORUS(III) CHLORIDE (PHOSPHORUS TRICHLORIDE), PCl_3

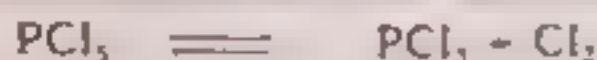
- This is a simple covalent chloride.
- It becomes a fuming liquid at room temperature.
- Phosphorus trichloride is a liquid because there are only van der Waals dispersion forces between the molecules.
- It does not conduct electricity because of the lack of ions or mobile electrons.

- Phosphorus III chloride reacts with water. If water is used then a solution of phosphorous acid and hydrochloric acid is formed.



PHOSPHORUS(V) CHLORIDE PHOSPHORUS PENTACHLORIDE, PCl_5

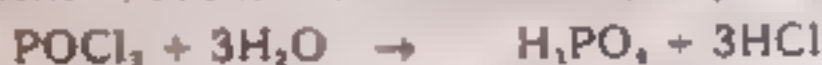
- Unfortunately, phosphorus pentachloride is a very unstable compound.
- Phosphorus V chloride is a white crystalline solid at room temperature.
- The higher the temperature the more the PCl_5 dissociates into PCl_3 and Cl_2 . The reaction is reversible.



- So if phosphorus pentachloride is heated, it dissociates into phosphorus trichloride and chlorine gas. The ions in solution are PCl_4^+ and PCl_6^- .
- Phosphorus V chloride has a higher boiling point than other covalent chlorides. If there is a small amount of water, it will form hydrochloric acid.
- The reaction of PCl_5 with water is exothermic and produces HCl along with HCl .



- If the water is boiling, the phosphorus pentachloride reacts further to produce phosphoric(V) acid. Phosphoric(V) acid is also known as phosphoric acid or orthophosphoric acid.

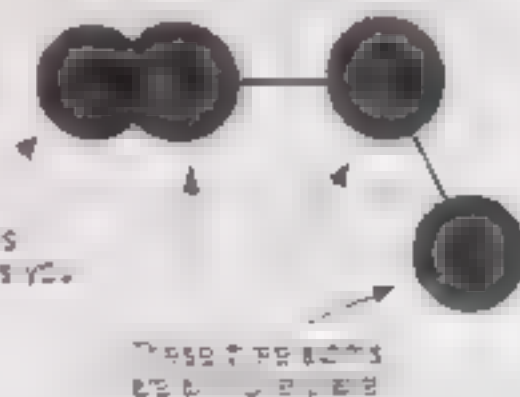


- The overall equation in boiling water is just a combination of the two.



DISULPHUR DICHLORIDE, S_2Cl_2

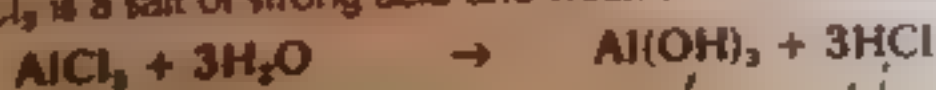
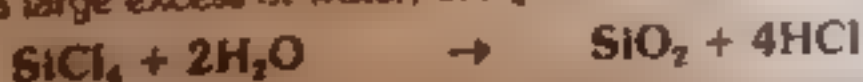
- Disulphur dichloride is formed when chlorine reacts with sulphur.
- Disulphur dichloride is a simple covalent liquid, orange and smelly.
- The shape is difficult to draw correctly. The atoms are joined up in a line but twisted.
- The reason for drawing the shape is to give a picture of the sort of intermolecular attractions are possible. There is no overall symmetry in the molecule and that means the molecule has an overall permanent dipole.
- Disulphur dichloride has van der Waals' dipole-dipole attractions.
- There are no ions in disulphur dichloride and it is a covalent liquid.
- Disulphur dichloride reacts slowly with water to produce a mixture of sulphuric acid, sulphur, hydrogen sulphide and various sulphur compounds.



QUICK QUIZ-4

1. Which of the following give acidic solution in water: MgCl_2 , AlCl_3 , SiCl_4 , NaCl

- MgCl_2 and NaCl are salts of strong acids and strong bases. So they are neutral.
- In a large excess of water, SiCl_4 will dissolve to give a strong, acidic solution.
- AlCl_3 is a salt of strong acid and weak base. It reacts with water.



Salt + water

Base Acid

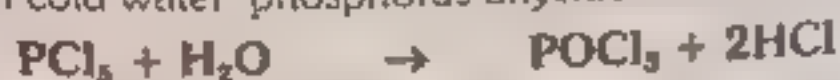
2. Why NaCl has high melting and boiling point

Sodium chloride is an ionic solid in which ions are held together by strong ionic forces. A lot of energy is needed to break these strong forces. Thus, it has high melting and boiling points.

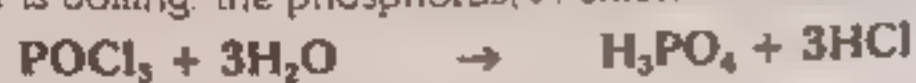
3. Write equations for reactions of PCl_5 with hot and cold water.

The reaction occurs in two stages

In the first, with cold water phosphorus oxychloride POCl_3 is produced along with HCl



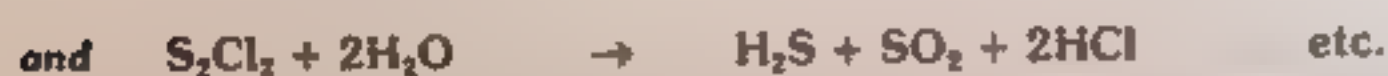
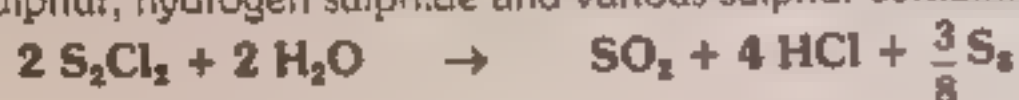
If the water is boiling, the phosphorus(V) chloride reacts further to give phosphoric(V) acid



Add the above two reactions to get the overall equation

**4. What products are obtained on reaction of disulphide dichloride with water.**

Disulphur dichloride reacts slowly with water to produce a complex mixture of things: it gives sulphuric acid, sulphur, hydrogen sulphide and various sulphur containing acids and anions

**5. Why AlCl_3 is non-conductor in solid as well as in liquid state but NaCl and MgCl_2 are conductor in liquid state and non-conductor in solid state.**

- NaCl and MgCl_2 do not conduct electricity in the solid state. It is because they do not have any free ions; the ions are not free to move. However, they undergo electrolysis when the ions become free on melting.
- Solid aluminium chloride does not conduct electricity at room temperature because the ions are not free to move. Molten aluminium chloride also does not conduct electricity because still there are no free ions.

HYDROXIDES OF THE PERIOD 3 ELEMENTS**SODIUM AND MAGNESIUM HYDROXIDES**

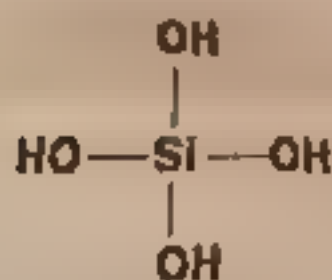
- These contain hydroxide ions, and are simple basic hydroxides

ALUMINIUM HYDROXIDE

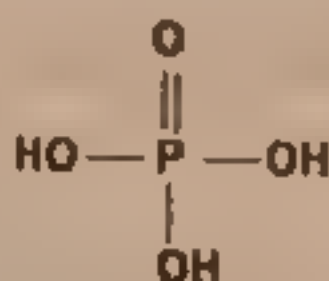
- Aluminium hydroxide, like aluminium oxide, is amphoteric. Thus, it has both basic and acidic character.

THE OTHER "HYDROXIDES"

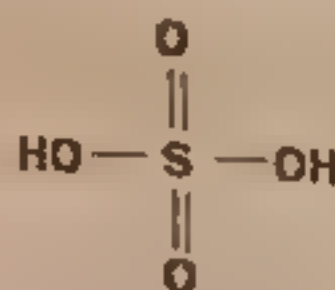
- In all of these have $-\text{OH}$ groups covalently bound to the atom from period 3.
- These compounds are all acidic. These range from the very weakly acidic silicic acids to the very strong sulphuric or chloric acids.
- There are other acids (also containing $-\text{OH}$ groups) formed by these elements, but these are where the Period 3 element is in its highest oxidation state.



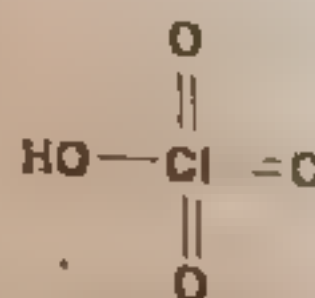
orthosilicic acid



phosphoric(V) acid



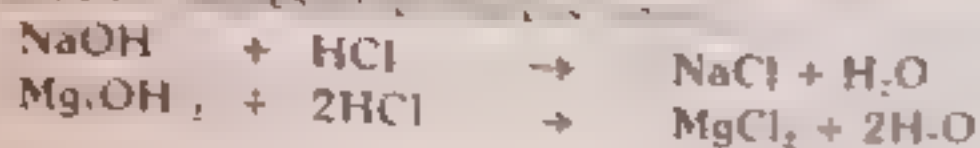
sulphuric acid



chloric(VII) acid

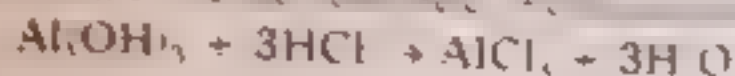
SODIUM AND MAGNESIUM HYDROXIDES

- These are strong bases.
- They react with acids to form salts, e.g.

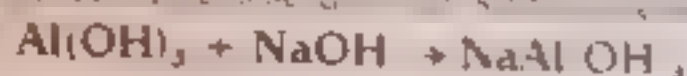


ALUMINIUM HYDROXIDE

- Aluminium hydroxide is amphoteric.
- Like sodium hydroxide, it reacts with dilute acids to form salts.



- But aluminium hydroxide also reacts with strong bases to form salts.



THE OTHER 'HYDROXIDES'

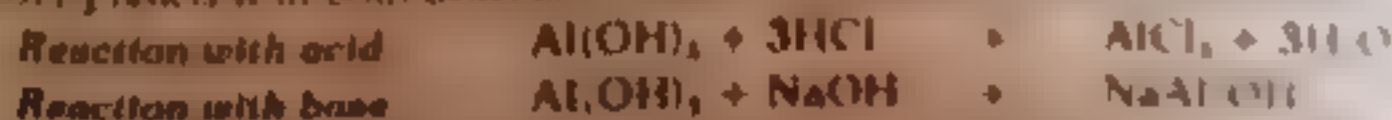
- Orthosilicic acid is very weak.
- Phosphoric(V) acid is a weak acid.
- Sulphuric acid and chromic(VI) acid are strong acids.
- The main factor in determining the strength of an acid is the ease with which hydrogen has been removed from the rest of the ion.
- If the negative charge stays entirely on the oxygen atom, the attraction to hydrogen ions is strong.
- On the other hand, if the charge is delocalised over the whole molecule, that it won't attract the hydrogen ions as strongly.

QUICK QUIZ-5

- Which factor determines the strength of acid?
Two factors are responsible for the strength of an acid:
(i) **Ease of donation of proton. Bond Energy**
Greater the ease of donation of proton, higher is the acidity.
Thus, higher the bond energy, lesser is the acidity.
The acidity order among halogen acids is $\text{HI} > \text{HBr} > \text{HCl} > \text{HF}$.
(ii) **Stability of the anion (conjugate base)**
Greater the stability of anion, higher is the acidity. An anion is more stable if it is able to delocalise its negative charge by attracting electrons of anion towards itself. e.g.
 $\text{HClO}_4 \rightleftharpoons \text{H}^+ + \text{ClO}_4^-$
In this, the anion, ClO_4^- , is stabilised by the presence of four oxygen atoms which are highly electronegative elements. Thus, HClO_4 is the strongest acid.

- Justify that Al(OH)_3 is amphoteric compound.

Al(OH)_3 reacts with both acids and bases to form salts.



ATOMIC AND PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF THE GROUP 1 ELEMENTS

Table: Some Physical Properties of alkali metals

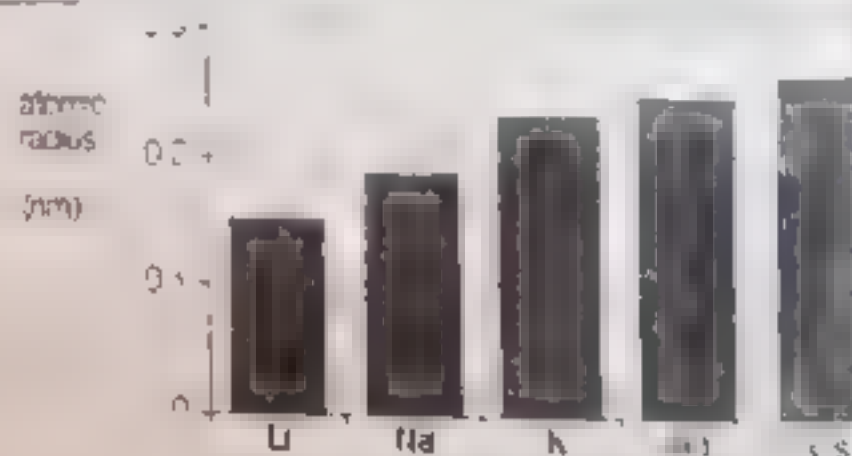
Property	Li	Na	K	Rb	Cs
Atomic weight	6.94	22.99	39.10	85.47	132.91
Atomic volume	12.97	23.78	45.4	73.4	118.3
Atomic (metallic radius for coordination number 12)	152	186	227	248	265
covalent radius	123	166	203	226	242
Ionic radius of M ⁺ ions	76	102	138	152	167
Melting point	180.5	97.8	63.5	39.3	28.4
Boiling point	1344	883	774	688	648
Ionization energies (kJ/mol) (I ₁)	520.3	495.8	418.8	403.0	375.7
Standard oxidation potential	3.04	2.71	2.93	2.93	2.92
Sublimation energy (eV/ion)	174.2	214.2	242	262	282
Hydration energy (eV/ion)	5904	3702	3052	2762	2512
Electronegativity	1	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7
Colour of the flame	Crimson red	Golden yellow	Violet	Reddish violet	Blue-violet
Heat of atomisation at 25°C (eV/atom)	174.2	214.2	242	262	282
Ionic conduction of M ⁺ ion	33.5	42.5	50.0	55.0	60.0

Shielding Effect or Screening Effect: The decrease in attraction between valence electrons and inner shells electrons is called Shielding effect or screening effect.

TRENDS IN ATOMIC RADIUS

The distance of outermost electron from the nucleus of an atom while considering it spherical is called atomic radius.

The atomic radius increases down the group from lithium to caesium. It is because, down the group number of shells increases. So, the atomic volume increases. Moreover, the shielding effect of inner electrons also increases. Hence, atomic and ionic radii (of M⁺ ions) increases from lithium to caesium.

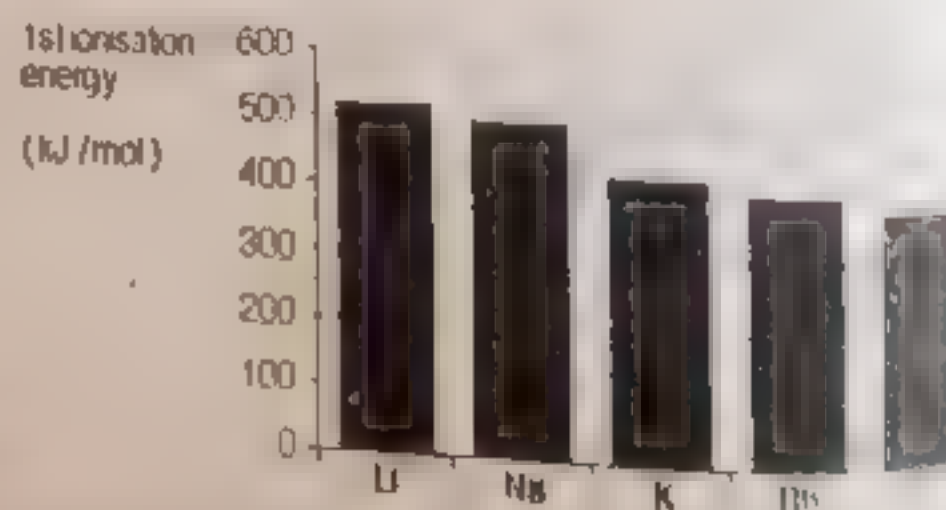


TRENDS IN FIRST IONIZATION ENERGY

First ionization energy is the energy needed to remove the most loosely held electron from one mole of gaseous atoms to make one mole of singly charged gaseous ions.



The first ionization energy decreases down the group.

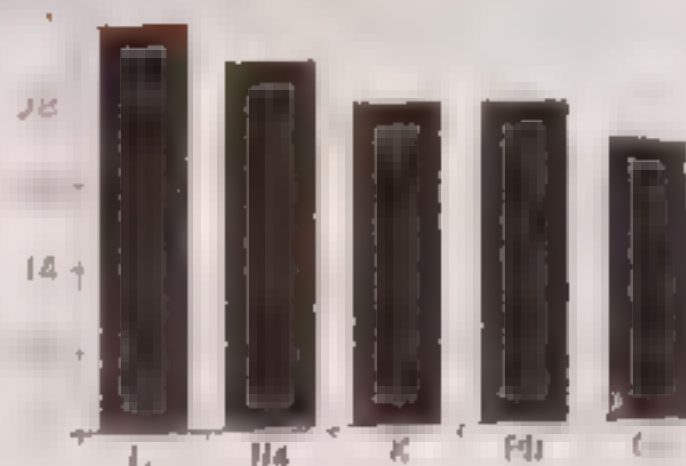


- The alkali metals have only one electron in their outermost shell (ns¹ electron). This ns¹ electron is weakly held with the nucleus. Thus, it can be removed very easily. Therefore, Alkali metals have low ionization energies.
- The distance of ns¹ electron from the nucleus increases from Li to Cs due to increase in atomic size. Thus its removal becomes more and more easy and the amount of energy required for the removal of ns¹ electron also decreases. Hence, ionization energies of alkali metals decrease from Li to Cs.
- The second ionization energies are fairly high, since the loss of the second electron from M⁺ cation results in a noble gas configuration.

TRENDS IN ELECTRONEGATIVITY

Electronegativity is a measure of the tendency of an atom to attract a bonding pair of electrons

- It is usually measured on the Pauling scale on which the most electronegative element fluorine is given an electronegativity of 4.0
- It has no unit.
- The electronegativity values decrease down the group from Li to Cs due to increase in atomic size



TRENDS IN MELTING AND BOILING POINTS

Both the melting points and boiling points decrease down the Group.

- The melting and boiling points are very low due to the presence of weak inter-atomic bonds in the solid state of the alkali metals
- The bonds are weak due to their larger atomic radii and mainly due to a single valence electron as compared to large number of available vacant orbital
- As the size of the metal atoms increases, the repulsion of the non-bonding electrons also increases. This increase in the repulsion of non-bonding electron decreases the melting and boiling points of alkali metals from Li to Cs



TRENDS IN DENSITY

- The densities of alkali metals are quite low due to their large atomic volumes as shown in the figure
- Li, Na and K are lighter than water
- The densities increase with the increase in atomic mass from Li to Cs. It is because increase in atomic mass is more than the increase in atomic volume. So, the density increases
- K is however, lighter than Na. It is due to an unusual increase in atomic volume of K



Elements	Li	Na	K	Rb	Cs
Densities at 0°C (g/c.c)	0.534	0.972	0.859	1.532	1.93

QUICK QUIZ-6

1. Different element imparts different colours in flame?

In certain metals the outer electron is loosened, but when it returns to its original position, it gives out absorbed energy in the form of light. The amount of energy absorbed during the excitation of the electron is equal to the energy released when it returns to its original position. The different colours are imparted by the atoms to the flame.

2. Explain that 2nd ionization energy is greater than 1st ionization energy?

It is because, due to removal of first electron, the remaining electron is held more tightly by the nucleus. Thus, the second electron is difficult to remove and thus ionization energy is higher.

Example:



3. Why melting point of alkali metals are low as compared to alkaline earth metals
It is due to two reasons

- The atomic radii of alkaline earth metals are smaller than those of alkali metals in the same period. Alkaline earth metals have relatively tight packing of atoms. So they are harder and have higher melting points than alkali metals.
- Alkali metals have one valence electron. Thus they provide one electron per atom for bonding. Alkaline earth metals provide two electrons per atom for bonding. So they have stronger bonding forces and hence higher melting points than alkali metals.

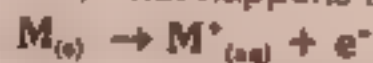
CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF THE GROUP 1 ELEMENTS

REACTIONS WITH WATER

- With the exception of Li, the alkali metals are extremely soft and readily fused.
- They are highly malleable (i.e. can be pressed out into sheets) and ductile (i.e. can be drawn into wires).
- When freshly cut, they have a bright lustre.
- They are quickly tarnished as soon as metal comes in contact with atmosphere.
- The reactivity of Group 1 metals increases down the Group.

Enthalpy changes for the reactions

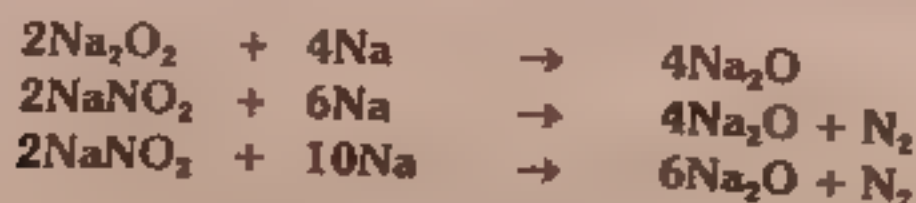
- Generally, enthalpy of reaction increases from Li to Cs.
- However, there is no regular pattern in these values. They are all fairly similar.
- Lithium releases the most heat during the reaction.
- In each case, metal atoms in a solid form are reacted and metal ions are formed in the solution.
- Overall, what happens to the metal is this



	Enthalpy change (kJ / mol)
Li	222
Na	184
K	196
Rb	195
Cs	203

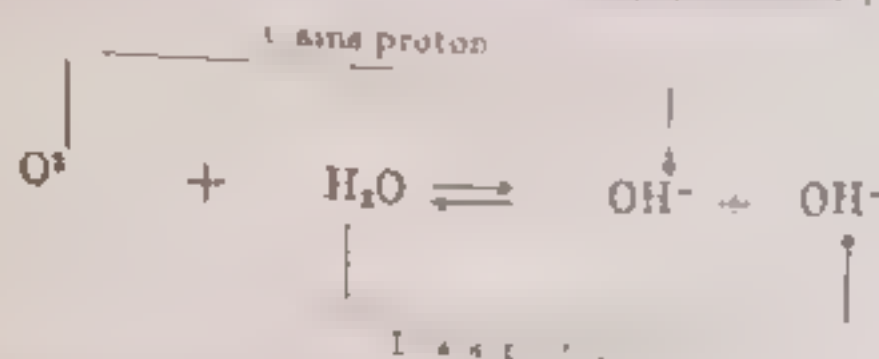
REACTIONS WITH OXYGEN

- Alkali metals react with O_2 or air rapidly and thus get tarnished due to the formation of the oxide on the surface of the metals. That is why alkali metals are stored in kerosene or paraffin oil.
- Li when burnt in O_2 gives mainly lithium monoxide, (normal oxide) Li_2O .
- Na when burnt in O_2 forms sodium peroxide, Na_2O_2 .
- Other alkali metals react with O_2 to form super oxide of MO_2 type.
- Normal oxides of alkali metals are not formed by the direct reaction between the metals and O_2 except (Li_2O) . They are formed by indirect methods, e.g. by reducing peroxides, nitrite and nitrates with the metal itself.



Properties.

- Normal oxides (O^{2-}) react with H_2O to form hydroxides by proton exchange



- The peroxides (O_2^{2-}) and superoxides ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) are also formed. These react with H_2O to give H_2O_2 and O_2



- Normal oxides have anti-fluorite structure. They are ionic in nature since they contain monoxide ion, O^{2-}
- Peroxides contain peroxide ion, O_2^{2-} or $[O-O]^{2-}$
- The super oxide ion has a three electron bond as shown below



- The presence of one unpaired electron in it makes this ion a free radical.

REACTIONS WITH CHLORINE

- Sodium burns with an intense orange flame in chlorine in the same way as it does in pure oxygen
- The rest also behave the same in both cases
- In each case, a white solid is produced which is the simple chloride, MCl



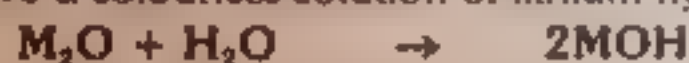
CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF THE COMPOUNDS OF GROUP 1 ELEMENTS

REACTIONS OF THE OXIDES WITH WATER AND DILUTE ACIDS

(i) THE SIMPLE OXIDES, X_2O

Reaction with water

These are simple basic oxides, reacting with water to give the metal hydroxide e.g. lithium oxide reacts with water to give a colourless solution of lithium hydroxide



Reaction with dilute acids

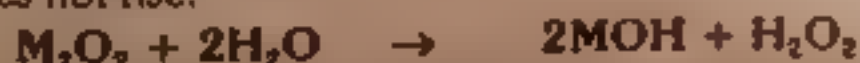
These simple oxides all react with an acid to give a salt and water e.g. sodium oxide reacts with hydrochloric acid to give colourless sodium chloride solution and water



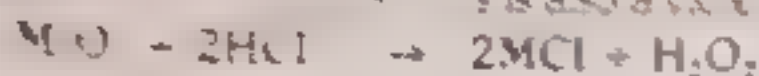
(ii) THE PEROXIDES, X_2O_2

Reaction with water

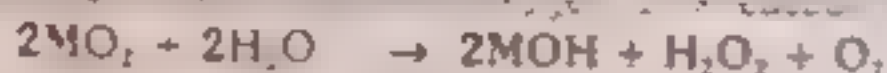
- If the reaction is done ice cold then a solution of the metal hydroxide and hydrogen peroxide is formed. These reactions are strongly exothermic. However, during reaction the temperature of the solution does not rise.



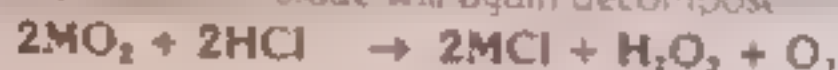
- If the temperature increases, the hydrogen peroxide produced decomposes into water and oxygen. The reaction can be very violent overall
- The temperature rise is generally certain. However, it can be controlled by adding the peroxide to water



THE SUPEROXIDES NO Reaction with water



Reaction with dilute acids



EFFECT OF HEAT ON NITRATES, CARBONATES AND HYDROGEN-CARBONATES

(i) THE FACTS

- Group 1 compounds are more stable to heat than the corresponding
- The lithium compounds behave similarly to Group 2 compounds
- The rest of Group 1 behave similarly but in a different way, than Group 2

Nature of carbonates, bicarbonates and nitrates

- The carbonates M_2CO_3 and bicarbonates $MHCO_3$ are highly stable to heat
 - With increase of electropositive character from Li to Cs the stability of these salts increases
 - Their nitrates decompose on strong heating to the corresponding nitrite and O_2
- $$2NaNO_3 \rightarrow 2NaNO_2 + O_2$$
- The $LiNO_3$ decomposes completely to give corresponding oxide NO_2 and O_2
- $$3LiNO_3 \rightarrow 2Li_2O + 4NO_2 + O_2$$

QUICK QUIZ-7

(ii) EXPLAINING THE TREND IN TERMS OF THE POLARISING ABILITY OF THE POSITIVE ION

- Why lithium salts are more covalent in nature while salts of other alkali metals are ionic.

When cations approach near an anion, they attract the outer most electrons of the anion and repels the nucleus. Thus the distortion or polarization of the anion takes place. This distortion results in the sharing of electrons between two oppositely charged ions. So, a bond between the cation and anion becomes partly covalent in character. In general the smaller cations polarize the anions more effectively than bigger one. Therefore, the lithium salts are slightly covalent while other alkali metal salts are ionic.

- Give trend of stability of carbonates of alkali and alkaline earth metals along group.

- The solubility of alkali metal carbonates increases down the group due to increase in ionic character
- Generally, the solubility of alkaline earth metal carbonates decreases down the group except $BaCO_3$ which has slightly more solubility than $SrCO_3$. So, a clean trend is not found.

3. Show bonding in superoxide ion

- The super oxide ion has a bond order of $\frac{1}{2}$



- The presence of one unpaired e⁻

4. Why alkali metals stores in kerosene or paraffin oil

Alkali metals react with oxygen, water and moisture in the surface of the metal. These reactions are exothermic and are self-sustaining. Alkali metals are stored in kerosene or paraffin oil.

FLAME TESTS

- Flame tests are used to identify the metal ions in a sample.
- All metal ions do not give flame.
- Flame tests is the easiest way of identifying metal ions.
- For other metals, there is a characteristic flame colour.

PROCEDURE FOR FLAME TEST

- Take a platinum or nichrome (a nickel chromium alloy) wire.
- Clean it by dipping it into concentrated hydrochloric acid.
- Repeat this until the wire does not produce any colour.
- Moisten the clean wire with a solution of the compound to be tested. It sticks to the wire.
- Place the wire back in the flame again.
- If the flame colour is weak, then dip the wire back in the acid again and put it back into the flame.
- A very short but intense flash of colour is obtained.
- Different colours are shown by different elements.

RESULT: THE COLOURS

Different colours shown by different elements are as follows:

How to differentiate between different red colours obtained in flame test?

- Get samples of known lithium, strontium and calcium compounds.
- Repeat the flame test with known and unknown compounds.
- Comparing the colour produced by known compounds and the unknown compound side by side until a good match is obtained.

ELEMENT	FLAME COLOUR
Lithium	Red
Sodium	Yellow
Potassium	Violet
Calcium	Orange-red
Strontium	Red
Barium	Green
Copper	Blue-green
Lead	Blue
Zinc	Blue
Aluminium	Blue
Magnesium	Blue
Iron	Blue
Nickel	Blue
Chromium	Blue
Manganese	Blue
Cobalt	Blue
Nickel	Blue
Copper	Blue
Lead	Blue
Zinc	Blue
Aluminium	Blue
Magnesium	Blue
Iron	Blue
Nickel	Blue
Chromium	Blue
Manganese	Blue
Cobalt	Blue

THE ORIGIN OF FLAME COLOURS

- In alkali metal atoms the outermost electron is loosely held with respect to the higher energy levels even by a small amount of heat energy (e.g. Bunsen burner).

- The ...
- The ...

QUICK QUIZ-8

(1) Ion of which element among the alkali metals has the greatest polarizing power?

In general, the smaller cations polarize the ...
has the greatest polarizing power

(2) Justify the placing of Li, Na, K, Rb, and Cs in the same group of the periodic table

The valence shell electronic configuration of ... is $2s^1$...
(ns^1). Thus, due to similar electronic configuration, Li shows ...
alkali metals group

(3) Write the electronic configuration for alkali metal atoms.

Element	Electronic Configuration	Short configuration
Li	$1s^2 2s^1$	
Na	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^1$	
K	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^4 4s^1$	
Rb	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^4 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^1$	
Cs	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^4 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^{10} 5p^6 6s^1$	
Fr	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^4 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^{10} 5p^6 6s^2 4f^{14} 5d^{10} 6p^6 7s^1$	

(4) Explain the periodicity in ionization energy, electronegativity and atomic radii on passing from Li to Rb

- Atomic radii increases from Li to Rb due to increase in number of shells and shielding effect
- Ionization energy decreases from Li to Rb due to increase in size
- Electronegativity decreases from Li to Rb due to increase in size

(5) Among alkali metals atoms which has the largest ionization potential?

Lithium (Li) metal has highest ionization energy due to its smallest size among alkali metals

(6) Explain the following.

(a) Alkali metals show an oxidation state +1 only

Alkali metals have only one valence electron which is easily lost due to low first ionization energy. After loss of one electron, they get the noble gas configuration. So, it becomes highly difficult to remove second electron from them. Therefore, they have high second ionization energy. Hence they do not show oxidation state greater than +1.

(b) Alkali metals are univalent.

Alkali metals have only one valence electron which is easily lost due to low first ionization energy. After the loss of one electron, they get the noble gas configuration. So, it becomes highly difficult to remove second electron from them. Therefore, they have high second ionization energy. Hence they are univalent.

(c) Alkali metals are good reducing agents

Alkali metals have low ionization energy. So, they can easily lose electrons i.e. they are easily oxidized. Thus they can reduce substances and act as excellent reducing agents.

(d) Alkali metals have low m.p.s

Alkali metals have only one valence electron. So, they provide only one electron for binding. Therefore, they have weaker binding forces and hence they have low melting points.

a) What means give characteristic colour to the Bunsen flame

It is due to the fact that the electrons are excited by the heat of the flame. When they fall back to the ground state, they emit light of characteristic colour. The colour of the flame is due to the emission of light in the visible region.

b) What is stored under kerosene

It is the metal ions of the alkali metals. These are stored under kerosene to prevent them from reacting with air and moisture.

c) What means form M^+ cations instead of M^{2+} cations

Alkali metals have a single valence electron. They lose this electron to form M^+ cations. This is because the ionization energy of these metals is low, and they prefer to lose one electron rather than two.

d) What means

It is the tendency of an atom to lose or gain electrons to achieve a stable electronic configuration.

e) Hydroxides of 1st group are strong bases. Explain why?

Alkali metals have a low ionization energy, which means they can easily lose their valence electron. This results in the formation of a strong base, the hydroxide of the metal.

f) Explain the following

1. Li_2CO_3 is more stable than Na_2CO_3 and K_2CO_3 are less stable.

2. Li_2CO_3 is more stable than Na_2CO_3 and K_2CO_3 are less stable.

3. Li_2CO_3 is more stable than Na_2CO_3 and K_2CO_3 are less stable.



4. Li_2CO_3 is more stable than Na_2CO_3 and K_2CO_3 are less stable.

5. Li_2CO_3 is more stable than Na_2CO_3 and K_2CO_3 are less stable.

GROUP 2 ELEMENTS

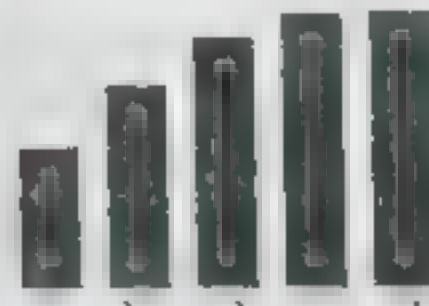
ATOMIC AND PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

The Group 2 elements are called alkaline earth metals.

TRENDS IN ATOMIC RADIUS

- The figure shows the trend in atomic radius of Group 2 elements.
- Atomic radius increases from Be to Ra.
- The atomic radius increases from Be to Ra because down the group, the number of shells increases, hence the atomic radius increases from Be to Ra.
- The atomic radius of Group 2 elements is smaller than that of Group 1 elements because they have higher nuclear charge which pulls the electrons closer to the nucleus.
- Due to smaller atomic radius, the density of Group 2 elements is higher than that of Group 1 elements.

FIGURE 1.10: ATOMIC RADIUS OF GROUP 2 ELEMENTS



Property	Be	Mg	Ca	Sr	Ba	Ra
Atomic weight	9.01	24.31	40.08	87.62	137.34	226
Abundance (% of earth's crust)	6.4×10^{-4}	2.0	3.45	0.915	0.040	1.3×10^{-10}
Density (g/cc)	1.84	1.74	1.55	2.54	3.56	6.00
Melting point ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	1277	650	838	763	714	700
Boiling point ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	2770	1107	1440	1380	1610	1100
Atomic volume (c.c.)	4.90	13.97	25.9	34.54	36.7	38.0
Atomic (i.e., metallic) radius for co-ordination number 12 (\AA)	1.12	1.60	1.97	2.15	2.22	2.30
Covalent radius (\AA)	0.90	1.36	1.74	1.91	1.98	2.05
Tonic (crystal radius of M^{2+} ion for co-ordination number 6 (\AA))	0.31	0.65	0.99	1.13	1.35	1.40
Ionization energies (KJ/mole)						
I	899.5	737.7	829.8	547.5	502.9	509.4
II	1757.1	1450.7	1145.4	1064.3	965.2	979.0
I + II	2656.6	2188.4	1735.2	1613.8	1468.1	1488.40
Oxidation state	+2	+2	+2	+2	+2	+2
Electronegativity	1.5	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9
Flame colouration	None	None	Brick red	Crimson	Apple green	Red
Oxidation potentials (volts) for $\text{M}(\text{s}) \rightarrow \text{M}^{2+}(\text{aq}) + 2\text{e}^{-}$	1.70	1.37	2.87	2.89	2.90	2.92
Heat of atomization at 25°C and 1 atm pressure (KJ/mole)	327.26	146.89	181.21	163.21	175.77	175.77
Heat of hydration (KJ/mole)	2385.45	1925.1	1653.07	1458.67	1276.42	1276.42
Ionic potential of M^{2+} ion (i.e., charge/radius ratio)	6.66	3.08	2.12	1.82	1.55	1.33

TRENDS IN FIRST IONIZATION ENERGY

First ionization energy is the energy needed to remove the most loosely held electron from each of one mole gaseous atoms to make one mole of singly charged gaseous ions

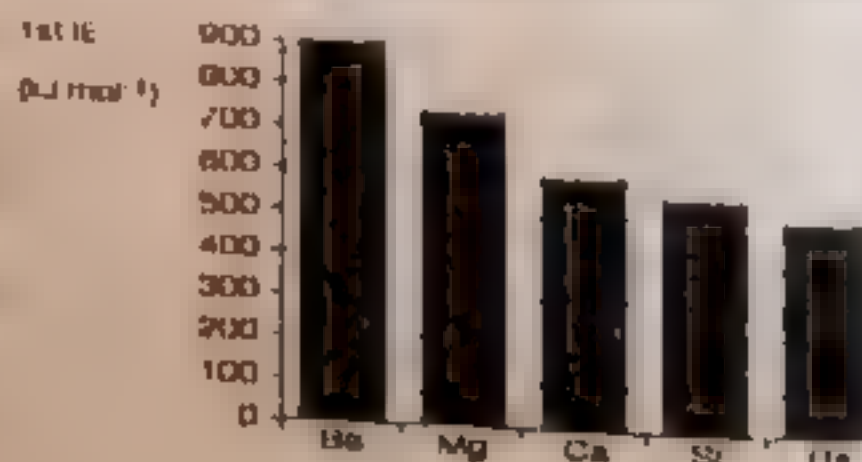


- The figure shows the first ionization energy of the Group 2 elements
- The first and second ionization energies of these elements decrease with the increase of atomic radii from Be to Ra.

It is because the distance of outer electrons from the nucleus increases from Be to Ra due to increase in atomic size. So, removal of electrons becomes more and more easy and thus amount of energy required for the removal electrons also decreases. Hence, ionization energies decreases from Be to Ra.

- Ra has slightly higher first and second ionization energies than Ba

First Ionization Energy of the Group 2 elements

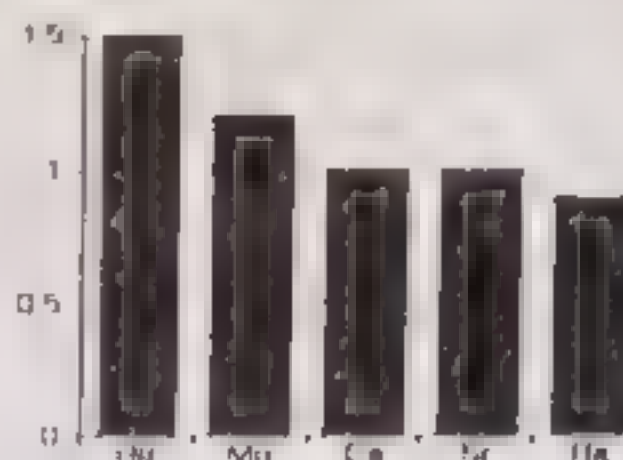


TRENDS IN ELECTRONEGATIVITY

Electronegativity is a measure of the tendency of an atom to attract a bonding pair of electrons.

- It is usually measured on the Pauling scale, on which the most electronegative element (fluorine) is given an electronegativity of 4.0
- It has no unit
- The figure shows the electronegativities of the Group 2 elements.
- The electronegativity values increase down the group.
- It is due to following reasons
 - Down the group atomic size increases. Thus, the distance of bonding pair increases from the metal nucleus. Hence, bonding pairs are less strongly attracted and so, the electronegativity decreases
 - Moreover, the bonds formed between these metals and other things (e.g. chlorine) become more and more ionic down the group. Thus, the bonding pair is pulled away from the Group 2 element towards the other things (e.g. chlorine)

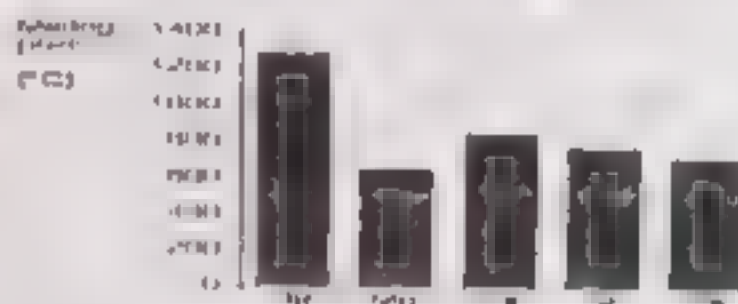
Electronegativity of the Group 2 elements



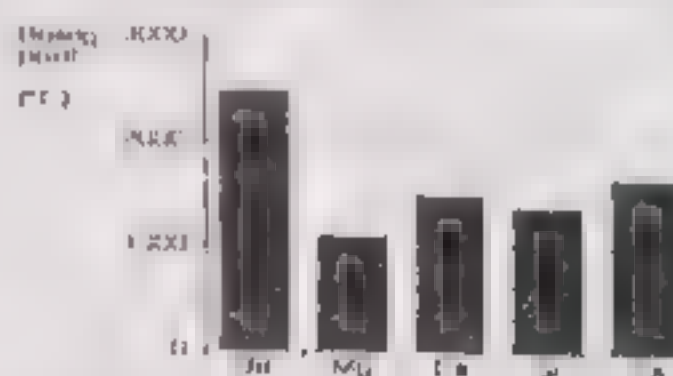
TRENDS IN MELTING POINT AND BOILING POINT

- The melting and boiling points of Group 2 elements are higher than Group 1 elements. It is because Group 2 elements have two valence electrons. So, they form greater number of bonds than Group 1 elements
- Generally, no regular trend is present in the melting and boiling points of Group 2 elements

Melting Points of the Group 2 elements



Boiling Points of the Group 2 elements



Melting points

The figure shows that the melting point decreases down the Group. However, the smooth decreasing trend is broken by magnesium.

Boiling points

The figure shows that there is no regular pattern in boiling points.

CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF THE ELEMENTS OF GROUP 2-ELEMENTS

REACTIONS WITH WATER

The reactivity increases down the group. It is because down the group, ability to give electrons increases.

THE FACTS

Beryllium

Beryllium has no reaction with water or steam even at red heat.

Magnesium

- Magnesium burns in steam to produce white magnesium oxide and hydrogen gas.

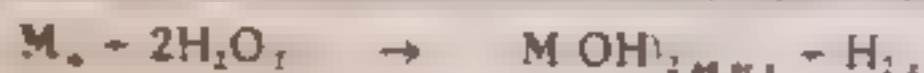


- Very clean magnesium ribbon has a very slight reaction with cold water. When some bubbles of hydrogen form on its surface. The coil of magnesium ribbon usually stops reacting in water.
- However, the reaction soon stops because the magnesium hydroxide forms on the surface of the ribbon and forms a barrier on the magnesium preventing further reaction.



Calcium, Strontium and Barium

- The reaction of these metals with water is as follows:
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TREND IN REACTIVITY

- $Be(OH)_2$ is not at all basic. It is amphoteric since it reacts with acids to form salts and with bases to form beryllates.



- The hydroxides of other metals are basic in nature.
- The basic character increases on moving down the group. Thus $Mg(OH)_2$ is weak base, the strongest base. It is because with the increase in size of M^{2+} cation, both the polarising power of M^{2+} and the internuclear distance between oxygen of OH^- ion and the metal atom increase. Thus the polarisation of $M(OH)_2$ and hence basic character increases.
- Due to high polarising power of small Be^{2+} in $Be(OH)_2$, it is covalent. All other hydroxides are ionic.
- The solubility of hydroxides increases down the Group as shown by the solubility products:

$Be(OH)_2 = 1.6 \times 10^{-20}$	$Mg(OH)_2 = 8.9 \times 10^{-12}$	
$Ca(OH)_2 = 1.3 \times 10^{-4}$	$Sr(OH)_2 = 3.2 \times 10^{-4}$	$Ba(OH)_2 = 5.4 \times 10^{-2}$
- Thus, $Be(OH)_2$ and $Mg(OH)_2$ are almost insoluble in H_2O . The hydroxides of other metals are soluble.

REACTIONS WITH OXYGEN AND NITROGEN

(a) FORMATION OF SIMPLE OXIDES

- The alkaline earth metals form the normal oxides of MO type.
- These are obtained either by heating the metal in O_2 or by heating their carbonates at high temperature.

$$2Ca + O_2 \rightarrow 2CaO$$

$$CaCO_3 \rightarrow CaO + CO_2$$

Properties:

- These oxides are extremely stable white crystal line solids due to their high crystal lattice energy obtained by packing doubly charged ions in a sodium chloride type of lattice.
- BeO and MgO are quite insoluble in H_2O while H_2O , CaO , SrO and BaO react with H_2O to give soluble hydroxides, $M(OH)_2$ which are strong bases.
- BeO is not basic in nature. In fact it is amphoteric since it reacts with acids to form salts and with alkalis to give beryllates.



- The oxides of other metals are basic in character. Their basic character increases down the group.
- Be^{2+} ion has high polarizing power due to small size. Thus BeO is covalent which does not conduct electricity.
- Although BeO is covalent yet it has a higher melting point and is harder than the oxide of other metals. It is polymorphic.
- Each Be atom is tetrahedrally coordinated by four oxygen atoms.

(b) FORMATION OF PEROXIDES.

- The peroxides of heavier metals (Ca, Sr, Ba etc.) can be obtained by heating the corresponding metal in oxygen at high temperature.

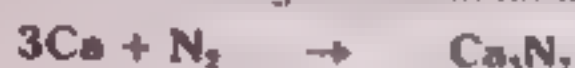


Properties:

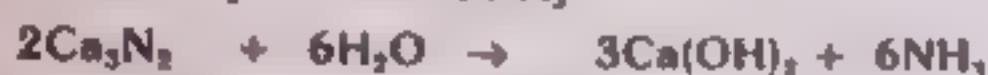
- The peroxides are white ionic solids having peroxide anion, $(\text{O})^{2-}$.
- They react with acids to produce H_2O_2 .

(c) FORMATION OF NITRIDES ON HEATING IN AIR

- All the elements burn in nitrogen to form nitrides, M_3N_2 etc.



- These react with H_2O to liberate NH_3 .



- Be_3N_2 is volatile while other nitrides are not so.

TRENDS IN SOLUBILITY OF THE HYDROXIDES, SULPHATES AND CARBONATES

I- SOLUBILITY OF THE HYDROXIDES

The solubility of hydroxides of Group 2 metals increases down the Group.

Magnesium hydroxide

It appears to be insoluble in water. However, shake it with water, filter it and test the pH of the solution. It will be slightly alkaline. It shows that there are more hydroxide ions in the solution than pure water. So, some magnesium hydroxide must have dissolved.

Calcium hydroxide

Its solution is used as "lime water". One litre of pure water will dissolve about 1 gram of calcium hydroxide at room temperature.

Barium hydroxide

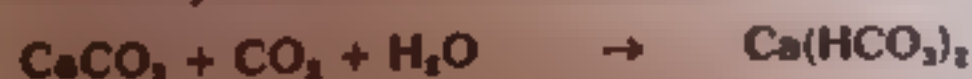
It is soluble enough and produces a solution with a concentration of around 0.1 mol dm^{-3} at room temperature.

II- SOLUBILITY OF THE SULPHATES

The solubility of sulphates of Group 2 metals decreases down the Group.

III- SOLUBILITY OF THE CARBONATES

- The solubility of carbonates of Group 2 metals decreases down the Group.
- Carbonates are insoluble in water and therefore occur as solid rock minerals in nature.
- However, they dissolve in H_2O containing CO_2 due to the formation of bicarbonates.



DIFFERENCES IN THE PHYSICAL SIMILARITY OF THE CARBOXYLATES AND NITRATES

The differences in the physical similarity of the carboxylates and nitrates are as follows:

(i) Solubility in water:

(ii) Melting point:

(iii) Boiling point:

(iv) Density:

(v) Viscosity:

THE EFFECT OF THE CARBOXYL GROUP ON THE PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

- The carboxyl group is a functional group which is present in many organic compounds.
- The carboxyl group is a functional group which is present in many organic compounds.
- The carboxyl group is a functional group which is present in many organic compounds.
- The carboxyl group is a functional group which is present in many organic compounds.
- The carboxyl group is a functional group which is present in many organic compounds.

Summary

- The carboxyl group is a functional group which is present in many organic compounds.
- The carboxyl group is a functional group which is present in many organic compounds.

HOW BENZYLALCOHOL DIFFERS FROM OTHER MEMBERS OF ITS GROUP?

Answer: Benzylalcohol differs from other members of its group in the following ways:

- (i) Solubility in water
- (ii) Boiling point
- (iii) Density
- (iv) Viscosity

1. Solubility: Benzylalcohol is more soluble in water than other members of its group.

2. Boiling point and melting point: The boiling and melting points of benzylalcohol are higher than those of other members of its group.

3. Formation of esters: Benzylalcohol reacts with acids to form esters, which are more stable than those of other members of its group.

4. Reaction with sodium: Benzylalcohol reacts with sodium to form sodium benzylate, which is more stable than those of other members of its group.



5. Reaction with hydrogen: Benzylalcohol reacts with hydrogen to form benzylalcohol, which is more stable than those of other members of its group.

6. Reaction with alkalis: Benzylalcohol reacts with alkalis to form benzylate, which is more stable than those of other members of its group.



The benzylate ion is more stable than those of other members of its group.

7. **Behaviour of oxides and hydroxides:** The oxides and hydroxides of beryllium are amphoteric i.e. dissolve in both acids and alkalis to form salts



8. **Behaviour of carbides** Beryllium carbide is decomposed by water to form methane (CH_4)



The carbide of other alkaline earth metals are decomposed by water to form acetylene (C_2H_2). For example,



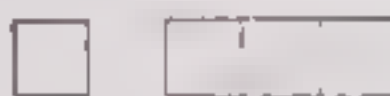
9. **Behaviour of nitrides:** Be_3N_2 is volatile while the nitrides of other alkaline earth metals are non-volatile.

10. **Number of molecules of water of crystallisation:** The salts of Be^{2+} ion cannot have more than four molecules of water of crystallisation while other alkaline earth metals have more than four molecules of water of crystallisation. It is because, in case of Be^{2+} ion there are only four orbitals. One orbital can accept only one lone pairs of electrons denoted by O-atoms of the water molecules as shown below.

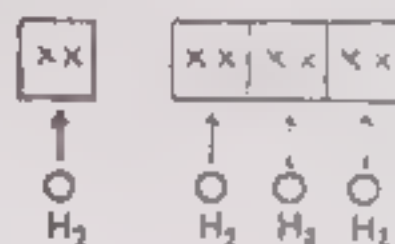
Valence shell
electronic configuration
of Be atom ($2s^2, 2p^0$)



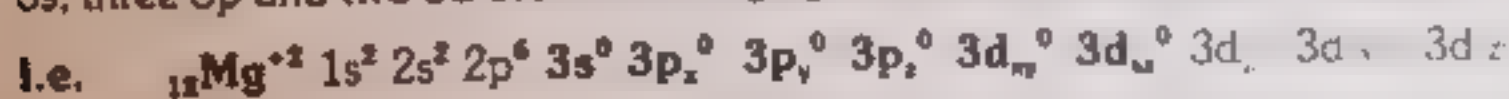
Valence shell configura-
tion of Be^{2+} ion ($2s^0, 2p^0$)



Attachment of $4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ mole-
cules with Be^{2+} ion



On the other hand, other alkaline earth metals like Mg can extend their coordination number to six by using one 3s, three 3p and two 3d orbitals belonging to their outermost shell. Thus, Mg in Mg^{+2} state is



11. **Formation of complex compounds:** Be^{2+} ion, on account of its small size forms stable complex compounds like $[\text{BeF}_4]^{2-}$, $[\text{BeF}_3]^{2-}$. The M^{2+} ions derived from other alkaline earth metals form very few complex compounds.

QUICK QUIZ-9

(1) Among the alkaline earth metals atoms which has the highest ionization potential?

Be has the smallest size among alkaline earth metals so it has the highest ionization potential.

(2) Explain why Ca, Sr, Ba, and Ra are placed in one group of the periodic table

The general valence shell electronic configuration of all these elements is ns^2 . This determines their chemical properties. Hence these are placed in one group of the periodic table.

(3) Explain the following

(a) Alkaline earth metals form M^{2+} ions but no M^+ ions.

Alkaline earth metals have two valence electrons. Both these electrons have quite low ionization energy. Hence both these electrons are lost easily. Hence they form M^{2+} ions instead of M^+ ions.

b. Although the atomic number of alkaline earth metals increases down the group, the atomic size also increases.

c. Beryllium salts are never more soluble than magnesium salts.

On the other hand, the alkaline earth metals have one 3s, three 3p and two 3d orbitals belonging to their outer shell.

(d) The solubility of the sulphates of alkaline earth metals decreases whereas the solubility of hydroxides increases on moving down the group.

- In hydroxides, OH^- is a small anion. So, lattice energy decreases down the group. Here, lattice energy overcomes the hydration energy. As we move down the group, the lattice energy decreases and therefore the solubility increases.
- In sulphates, SO_4^{2-} ion is common, which is a quite bigger anion. Hence, hydration energy is less. So, down the group, hydration energy decreases due to the increase in size of the anion. Thus, solubility of sulphates decreases down the group.

(e) The thermal stability of carbonates of alkaline earth metals increases in atomic numbers.

It is because in small size ions the gain in electrostatic attraction (lattice energy) is more. In the case of large cation, the gain in electrostatic attraction is relatively, much less and the decomposition is easier. Since the size of cation increases down the group, therefore stability also increases.

(f) Alkaline earth metals salts impart colour to the Bunsen flame.

In alkaline earth metals, the outer electron is loosely held with the nucleus. So, it can be excited to higher energy levels by absorbing a small amount of heat energy. When this excited electron returns to its original position, it gives out absorbed energy in the form of light in visible region. Different amount of energy is absorbed in different atoms for excitation of electron. Thus, different colours are imparted by the flame.

(g) MgSO_4 is more soluble in water than BaSO_4 .

It is because, the SO_4^{2-} ion is common in both. This ion is a quite bigger anion. Hence, hydration energy of SO_4^{2-} ion overcomes the lattice energy. Since, size of Ba^{2+} ion is greater than that of Mg^{2+} ion, so hydration energy of Ba^{2+} ion is less than Mg^{2+} ion.

(h) Alkaline earth metals form M^{2+} ions but not M^{3+} ions.

- It is because, alkaline earth metals have two valence electrons. By the removal of both electrons, alkaline earth metals get the configuration of noble gases and thus they form M^{2+} ions.
- It becomes very difficult to remove the third electron from a noble gas configuration ion. Therefore, ionization energy of alkaline earth metals is quite high. Hence, they cannot form M^{3+} ions.

How do the elements of group IIA differ from alkali metals

See Page 57 for the difference

The hydroxides of group IIA metals are weaker than those of group IA metals

Group A metals are

right in the periodic table

attractions are

therefore the

The carbonates of group IIA metals are less stable than those of group IA metals

is more stable

is more stable

is more stable

is more stable

KOH is stronger base than Ba(OH)₂

KOH is stronger

GROUP 4 ELEMENTS

The Group 4 elements

ATOMIC AND PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF THE ELEMENTS

MELTING POINTS AND BOILING POINTS

- The melting points
- The boiling points
- The densities
- The atomic radii
- The electronegativities
- The melting points
- The boiling points
- The densities
- The atomic radii
- The electronegativities



BRITTLENESS

- If a substance shatters when struck with a hammer, it is brittle.
- Carbon as diamond is very brittle. It shatters when struck with a hammer. This is due to the directional nature of the covalent bonds.
- Silicon, germanium and grey tin are also brittle.
- However, white tin and lead are not brittle. This is due to the non-directional nature of the metallic bonds. Thus, these elements are malleable.
- Lead in particular is a very soft metal.

ELECTRICAL CONDUCTIVITY

- Carbon as diamond does not conduct electricity. It is an insulator.
- Silicon, germanium and grey tin are semiconductors.
- White tin and lead are normal metallic conductors.
- Thus, electrical conductivity increases down the group from carbon as diamond to the typically metallic behaviour of lead.

ELECTRONEGATIVITY

- Carbon is the most electronegative element of this group.
- The electronegativities decrease with increase of atomic number. The irregularity is due to the filling of the d-orbital in case of Ge and Sn.

IONIZATION ENERGIES

The ionization energy values decrease down the group from C to Pb. However, the decrease is not regular.

The irregularity is due to the filling of the d orbitals in case of Ge and Sn and f-orbitals in case of Pb. Since d and f-orbitals have poor shielding effect, so they cannot shield the valence electron effectively. Hence, the pattern becomes irregular.

Remember!

The similar explanation can be given to irregularities in atomic radii, electronegativity etc.

THE TREND FROM NON-METAL TO METAL IN THE GROUP 4 ELEMENTS

STRUCTURES OF THE ELEMENTS

The metallic character increases down the group in Group 4 elements.

- Carbon at the top of the Group has giant covalent structures. It has two common allotropes, diamond and graphite.
- Diamond has a three dimensional structure of carbon atoms each bonded covalently to four (4) other atoms as shown in the figure.
- This same structure is found in silicon and germanium and in one of the allotropes of tin, which is "grey tin" or "alpha-tin".
- The common allotrope of tin "white tin" or "beta tin" is metallic. In this form atoms are held together by metallic bonds. Its structure is a distorted close packed arrangement. In close packing each atom is surrounded by twelve (12) near-neighbours.
- Thus, a clear trend is found down the group from the typical covalency in non-metals to the metallic bonding in metals.
- The change-over in the two entirely different structures of tin is the exception.



Exercise Q3 (viii) Explain the trends in oxidation states with suitable examples.

OXIDATION STATE

The apparent charge positive or negative on an atom in a substance is called its oxidation state or oxidation number.

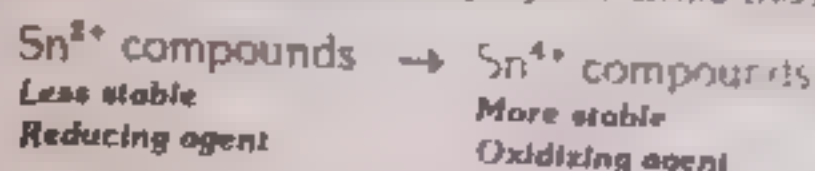
(a) INERT PAIR EFFECT AND POSITIVE OXIDATION STATES

- Carbon and silicon commonly show +4 oxidation states.
 - Germanium commonly shows both +2 and +4 oxidation states.
 - Tin and Pb commonly show +2 oxidation states.
 - When two np^2 electrons are lost from the ns^2np^2 configuration, the elements show +2 oxidation states.
 - The two electrons in ns^2 are not lost in the formation of M^{2+} cations. This pair of ns^2 electrons is called inert pair of electrons.
 - The stability of +2 oxidation state increases from Ge^{2+} to Pb^{2+} i.e. $Ge^{2+} < Sn^{2+} < Pb^{2+}$.
 - When all the four ns^2np^2 electrons are lost, the elements show +4 oxidation state, i.e. M^{4+} cations are formed.
 - The stability of +4 oxidation state decreases down the group i.e. $Ge^{4+} > Sn^{4+} > Pb^{4+}$.
- Compounds of Ge^{2+} are less stable than those of Ge^{4+} . Hence the compounds of Ge^{2+} are readily changed into those of Ge^{4+} . Thus, compounds of Ge^{2+} act as strong reducing agents while those of Ge^{4+} act as oxidizing agents.

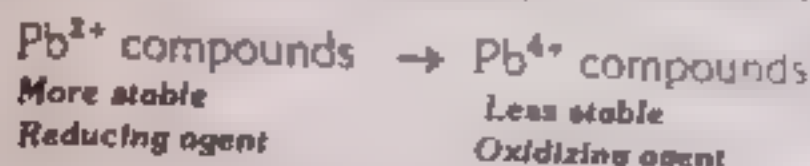
Ge^{2+} compounds → Ge^{4+} compounds
 Less stable → More stable
 Reducing agent → Oxidizing agent

Remember! A reducing agent reduces other but is itself oxidized.
 e.g. Ge^{2+} gives electrons to form Ge^{4+} (itself oxidized).
 The electrons lost by Ge^{2+} are added to some other species. So that species is reduced. Hence Ge^{2+} is a reducing agent.

Similarly, it can be shown that the compounds of Sn^{2+} are less stable than those of Sn^{4+} . The compounds of Sn^{2+} act as strong reducing agents while those of Sn^{4+} act as strong oxidizing agents.



Similarly, Pb^{2+} compounds are more stable than those of Pb^{4+} . The compounds of Pb^{4+} act as strong oxidizing agents while those of Pb^{2+} act as reducing agents.

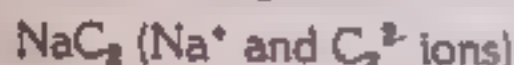
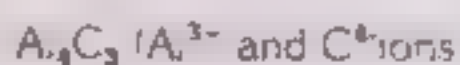


Thus, the order of stability of M^{2+} and M^{4+} cations of Ge, Sn and Pb is $\text{Ge}^{2+} < \text{Ge}^{4+}$; $\text{Sn}^{2+} < \text{Sn}^{4+}$; $\text{Pb}^{2+} > \text{Pb}^{4+}$.

(b) NEGATIVE OXIDATION STATE

- Since the electronegativities of these elements are low, they do not have much tendency to form the negative ion.
- However, carbon forms C^+ and C_2^{2-} ions in certain compounds.

Examples:



Exercise Q3 (ix) Discuss the inert pair effect in the:

(a) formation of ionic bonds (b) formation of covalent bonds

THE INERT PAIR EFFECT IN THE FORMATION OF IONIC BONDS

- If the elements in Group 4 form $2+$ ions, they will lose the p^2 electrons, leaving the s^2 pair unused e.g. to form a lead(II) ion, lead will lose the two $6p$ electrons, but the $6s$ electrons will be left unchanged, which is the "inert pair".
- Generally, ionization energies decrease down the group. However, in Group 4, this does not quite happen.
- The total ionization energy needed to form the $2+$ ions are shown in the figure in kJ mol^{-1} . The figure shows there is a slight increase between tin and lead. It shows that it is slightly more difficult to remove the p -electrons from lead than from tin.
- The total ionization energy needed to form the $4+$ ions are shown in the figure in kJ mol^{-1} . The difference between tin and lead is more prominent. The relatively large increase between tin and lead must be because the $6s^2$ pair is significantly more difficult to remove in lead than the corresponding $5s^2$ pair in tin. It can be explained by Theory of Relativity.

1st+2nd IEs



1st+2nd+3rd+4th IEs



Relativistic Contraction

With the heavier elements like lead, relativistic contraction of the electrons tends to draw the electrons more closer to the nucleus than expected. Thus, they are more difficult to remove. The heavier the element, the greater this effect. This affects s -electrons much more than p -electrons.

In the case of lead, the relativistic contraction makes it more difficult to remove the $6s$ electrons. The energy releasing in other process like lattice enthalpy and hydration enthalpy are not enough to compensate for this extra energy. It means for lead it is not energetically favourable to form $4+$ ions.

1. H 2. N 3. O and 4. F 5. Cl 6. Br 7. I 8. At

THE INERT PAIR EFFECT IN THE FORMATION OF COVALENT BONDS

- The inert pair effect is the tendency of the s-electrons in the heavier elements of groups 13, 14, 15, and 16 to remain unpaired and thus not participate in the formation of covalent bonds.
- The inert pair effect is more pronounced in the heavier elements of the groups.
- The inert pair effect is more pronounced in the elements of groups 13, 14, 15, and 16 than in groups 11 and 12.
- The inert pair effect is more pronounced in the elements of groups 13, 14, 15, and 16 than in groups 11 and 12.



- Thus there becomes 4 unpaired electrons. These undergo hybridization to form 4 sp^3 hybrid orbitals.
- The energy for promotion of s-electron is supplied because the carbon can form 4 covalent bonds. Each covalent bond formation releases energy which is more than the energy required for promotion of s-electron.
- The lead cannot do this. It is because bond energies decreases down the Group and the bonding pair goes away from the two nuclei and better screened from them. e.g., the energy released when two extra Pb-X bonds are formed may not compensate for the extra energy needed to promote a 6s electron into the empty 6p orbitals.
- It is becomes even more difficult, if the energy gap between the 6s and 6p orbitals was increased by relativistic contraction of the 6s orbital.

CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF THE ELEMENTS OF GROUP 4 ELEMENTS

THE CHLORIDES OF CARBON, SILICON AND LEAD

STRUCTURES AND STABILITY

STRUCTURES

CARBON, SILICON AND LEAD TETRACHLORIDES

- These all have the formula MX_4 .
- They are all simple covalent molecules with a typical tetrahedral shape.
- All of them are liquids at room temperature. However, at room temperature lead MX_4 decomposes to give lead(II) chloride and chlorine gas.

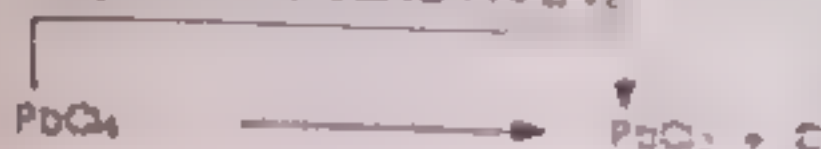
Lead(II) chloride, $PbCl_2$

- It is a white solid.
- Its melting point is $501^\circ C$.
- It is very slightly soluble in cold water, but more soluble in hot water.
- It is mainly ionic in character.

STABILITY

- The most stable
- This can be explained by the inert pair effect.
- However, the stability of the +2 oxidation state increases from Pb to Sn to Ge to Si.
- Lead (Pb) is a gas.

Easy reduction of lead from +4 to +2



REACTION WITH WATER (HYDROLYSIS)

The hydrolysis reaction

Step-I

- In this step, the central atom is attacked by water.
- These attack leads to the formation of an unstable intermediate.

Step-II

- In this step, the central atom is attacked by water.

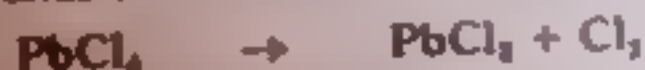
Tetrahalides of C are not hydrolysed while those of Si, Ge and Sn get readily hydrolysed

- The C atom is small and has a high electronegativity. It is unable to form a stable tetrahedral intermediate.
- On the other hand, Si, Ge and Sn have larger atomic sizes and lower electronegativities. Their tetrahalides get readily hydrolysed.
- Ease of hydrolysis increases in the order: $\text{Si} < \text{Ge} < \text{Sn}$.
- It must be noted however that sufficient energy is provided for the reaction to occur e.g. steam is used.

Superheated steam



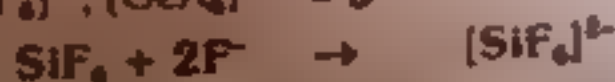
- Hydrolysis of tetrahalides of Pb follows essential decomposition of PbCl_4 .



- PbCl_4 is hydrolysed by H_2O as follows



- The tetrahalides of Si, Ge, Sn and Pb react with F^- to form $[\text{SiF}_6]^{2-}$, $[\text{GeF}_6]^{2-}$ e.g.



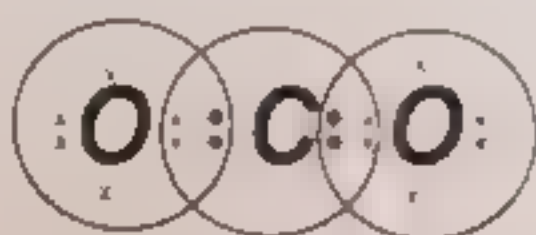
- The tetrahalides of C are exception. They do not form such complexes.

OXIDES

- There is a large difference between the physical properties of CO_2 and SiO_2 known as silicon(IV) oxide or silica
- Carbon dioxide is a gas whereas silicon dioxide is a hard high-melting solid
- The other dioxides in Group 4 are also solids. This is also due to the high melting point of carbon dioxide and the dioxides of the rest of the Group

THE STRUCTURE OF CARBON DIOXIDE

- The dipole moment of carbon dioxide is zero. Therefore it is a non-polar molecule.



THE STRUCTURE OF SILICON DIOXIDE

- It is a macromolecular compound, in which silicon and oxygen atoms are linked together to form a continuous 3D network of tetrahedral basic unit.
- In cristobalite, these units are joined as in diamond, while in quartz and tridymite they are arranged around an axis.
- Due to this structure silicon dioxide is non-volatile and hard unlike carbon dioxide.

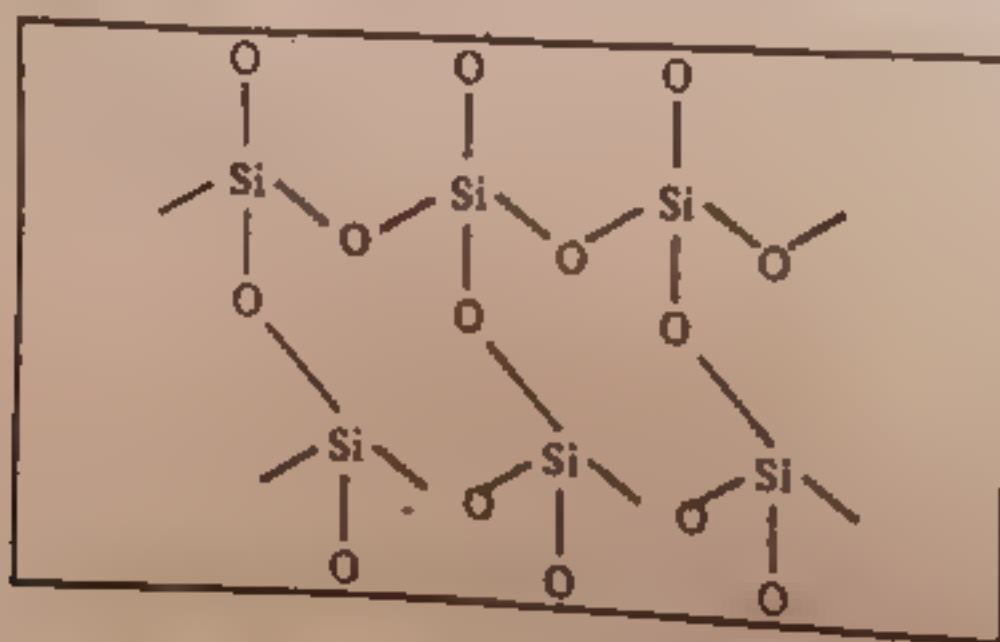
Similarity between structure of silicon dioxide and carbon dioxide

- Triatomic molecules of silicon dioxide and carbon dioxide, carbon and silicon are similar in having
 - (i) 4 valence electrons
 - (ii) 4 covalent bond formation

Differences between structure of silicon dioxide and carbon dioxide

But they show a lot of difference in their physical properties. It is due to the fact that

- (i) Silicon atoms are much larger in size than carbon atoms and thus tend to be surrounded by more oxygen atoms.
- (ii) Silicon forms only single bond with oxygen atoms while carbon forms double bonds.
- (iii) Carbon forms a linear molecule of CO_2 with two oxygen atoms. While silicon atom is bound to four oxygen atoms in a tetrahedral structure which results in the formation of silicon dioxide crystal. The simplest formula for silica is SiO_2 . However the whole crystal of silicon can be considered as one molecule.



Exercise Q3 (x) Discuss in detail acid-base trend in group 4 oxides

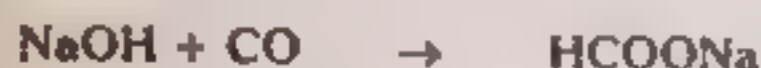
THE ACID-BASE BEHAVIOUR OF THE GROUP 4 OXIDES

- The oxides of the elements at the top of Group 4 are acidic
- The acidity of the oxides decreases down the Group
- Towards the bottom of the Group, the oxides become more basic. However, they do not lose their acidic character completely. Thus they become amphoteric
- An oxide which can show both acidic and basic properties is said to be **amphoteric**
- The trend is therefore from acidic oxides at the top of the Group towards amphoteric ones at the bottom

CARBON AND SILICON OXIDES

CARBON MONOXIDE

- It is treated as if it is a neutral oxide. However, it is very slightly acidic
- It does not react with water, but it will react with hot concentrated sodium hydroxide solution to give a solution of sodium methanoate



- This reaction shows that it must be acidic

CARBON AND SILICON DIOXIDES

These are both weakly acidic

Reactions with water

- Silicon dioxide does not react with water. It is due to the difficulty of breaking up the giant covalent structure
- Carbon dioxide does react with water to a slight extent to produce hydrogen ions (strictly, hydroxonium ions) and hydrogencarbonate ions

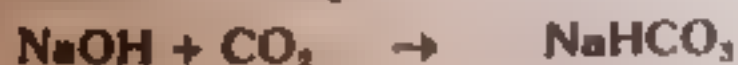


- The solution of carbon dioxide in water is sometimes known as carbonic acid. It is actually about 0.1% of the carbon dioxide has actually reacted. The position of equilibrium is well to the left hand side

Reactions with bases

- Carbon dioxide reacts with sodium hydroxide solution in the cold to give a solution of sodium carbonate or sodium hydrogencarbonate solution

- The ratio of both depends upon the relative amounts of reactants



- Silicon dioxide reacts only with hot and concentrated sodium hydroxide solution. Sodium silicate is formed.



- The famous reaction in the blast furnace extraction of iron is also with a basic species, CaO

- ✓ In this reaction calcium oxide (from the raw material limestone) reacts with silicon dioxide to form a liquid slag called calcium silicate.

- ✓ This reaction also shows the acidic behaviour of silicon dioxide reacting with a basic species



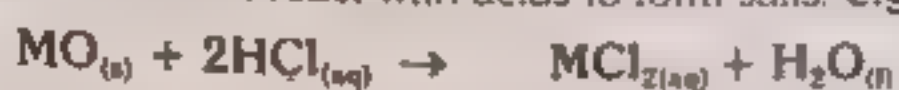
GERMANIUM, TIN AND LEAD OXIDES

THE MONOXIDES

All of these oxides are amphoteric they show both basic and acidic properties

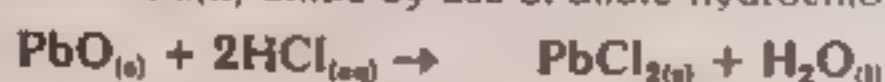
The basic nature of the oxides

- These oxides all react with acids to form salts. e.g., they all react with concentrated HCl

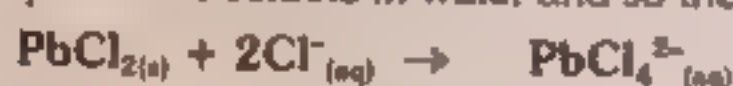


where M can be Ge and Sn. However, lead shows a different behaviour

- Lead(II) chloride is fairly insoluble in water and instead of getting a solution formed over the lead(II) oxide by use of dilute hydrochloric acid. This reaction is stopped

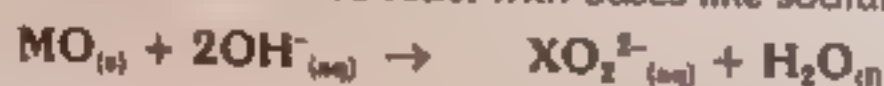


- However, with concentrated hydrochloric acid it does not happen. In concentrated acid, chloride ions react with the lead(II) chloride to produce soluble complexes such as PbCl_4^{2-} . These complexes are soluble in water and so the problem disappears.



The acidic nature of the oxides

- All of these oxides also react with bases like sodium hydroxide solution



- Lead(II) oxide, for example, would react to give PbO_2^{2-} [plumbate(II) ions]

THE DIOXIDES

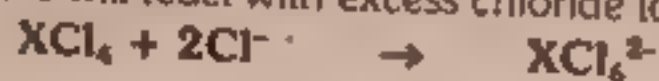
These dioxides are again amphoteric. Thus these shows both basic and acidic properties

The basic nature of the dioxides

- The dioxides react with concentrated hydrochloric acid first to give compounds of the type MX_4



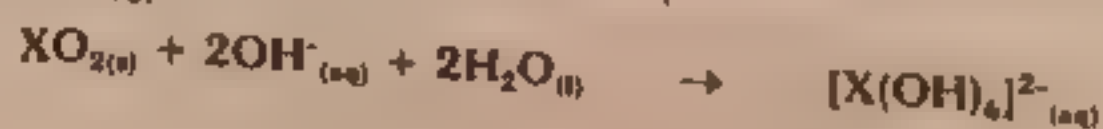
- These will react with excess chloride ions in the hydrochloric acid to give complexes such as XCl_6^{2-}



- In the case of lead (IV) oxide, the reaction is carried out with ice cold hydrochloric acid. It is because if the reaction is done any warmer, the lead (IV) chloride decomposes to give PbCl_2 and chlorine gas. This shows the preferred oxidation state of lead being +2 rather than +4

The acidic nature of the dioxides

- The dioxides will react with hot concentrated sodium hydroxide solution to give soluble complexes form $[\text{M}(\text{OH})_6]^{2-}$



- Some sources suggest that the lead(IV) oxide needs molten sodium hydroxide. In that case the equation is different



QUICK QUIZ-10

1. Which of the following is not a halogen?
a) Fluorine b) Chlorine c) Bromine d) Iodine
2. Which of the following is not a physical property of halogens?
a) Colour b) Melting point c) Boiling point d) Density
3. Which of the following is not a chemical property of halogens?
a) Reactivity b) Solubility c) Oxidation state d) Electronegativity
4. Arrange the following in order of increasing atomic radius:
Fluorine, Chlorine, Bromine, Iodine

GROUP 7-ELEMENTS: (HALOGENS)
ATOMIC AND PHYSICAL PROPERTIES
TRENDS IN ATOMIC RADII

Exercise Q3 Explain the trends in atomic radii of the halogens.

TRENDS IN ELECTRONEGATIVITY

- Halogens have high electronegativity.
- Electronegativity increases from Fluorine to Iodine.
- Electronegativity decreases from Fluorine to Iodine.

TRENDS IN FIRST ELECTRON AFFINITY

Electron affinity increases from Fluorine to Iodine.
However, the electron affinity of Fluorine is less than that of Chlorine.

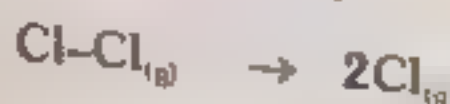
TRENDS IN MELTING AND BOILING POINTS

- The melting and boiling points of the halogens increase from Fluorine to Iodine.
It is because halogens exist as diatomic molecules held together by weak intermolecular forces.
- F_2 and Cl_2 are gases at room temperature.

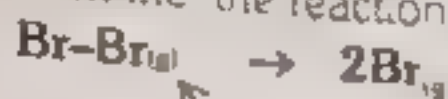
BOND ENTHALPIES (BOND ENERGIES OR BOND STRENGTHS)

- Bond enthalpy is the heat needed to break a bond, starting from the original substance.
- For chlorine Cl_2 , it is the heat energy needed to break the bond.





- For bromine the reaction is similar from gaseous bromine molecules to separate gaseous atoms



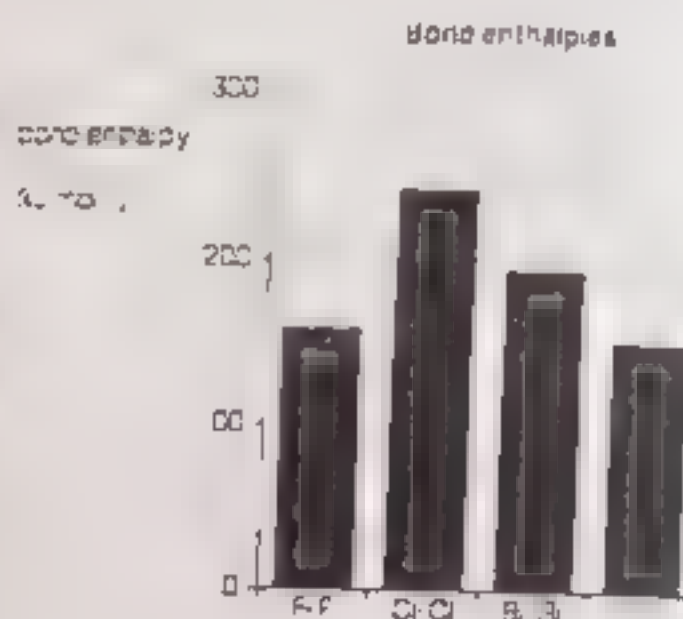
Gas not Liquid

BOND ENTHALPY IN THE HALOGENS, $\text{X}_{2(g)}$

The bond enthalpies of the $\text{Cl}-\text{Cl}$, $\text{Br}-\text{Br}$ and $\text{I}-\text{I}$ bonds decreases down the group due to increase in atomic size except the $\text{F}-\text{F}$ bond

$\text{F}-\text{F}$ bond has very low dissociation energy. It is due to following reasons

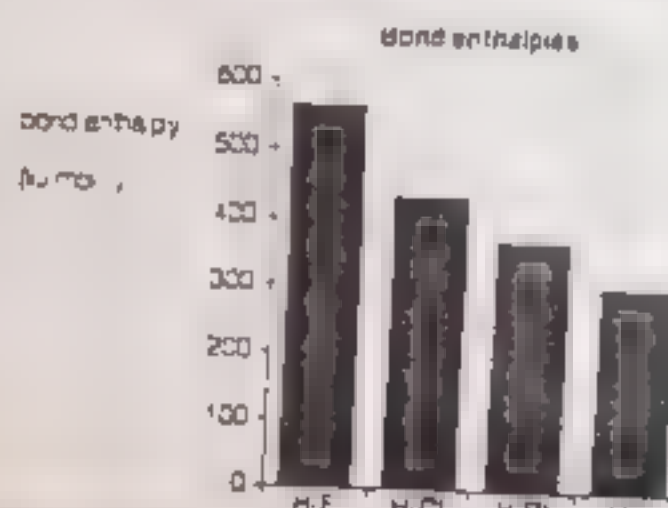
- It is due to very small $\text{F}-\text{F}$ bond length than other $\text{X}-\text{X}$ bond lengths. So the F atoms in F_2 molecule repel each other and thus the dissociation of F_2 molecule into F atoms becomes easy.
- $\text{X}-\text{X}$ bond in Cl_2 , Br_2 and I_2 molecules is stronger than $\text{F}-\text{F}$ bond in F_2 molecule. It is due to the possibility of the formation of multiple bonds in $\text{X}-\text{X}$ bond with d-orbitals.



BOND ENTHALPIES IN THE HYDROGEN HALIDES, $\text{HX}_{(g)}$

The bond enthalpies of HX decreases down the group

It is because, as the halogen atom gets bigger the bonding pair gets more and more distant from the nucleus. The attraction is less and the bond gets weaker. So the bond enthalpies of HX decreases down the group



STRENGTH OF HALOGENS AS OXIDIZING AGENTS: $\text{F}_2 > \text{Cl}_2 > \text{Br}_2 > \text{I}_2$

FACTS:

- A substance that has a tendency to accept one or more electrons is said to show oxidizing property.
- The halogens due to high electron affinity values have a great tendency to accept electron and hence act as strong oxidizing agent.
- The oxidizing property of a halogen molecule, X_2 is represented by:

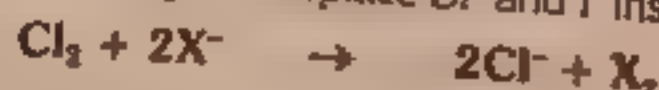
$$\text{X}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{HX} + \text{HOX} \quad (\text{in this reaction, X takes electrons})$$
- During this reaction energy is released. This energy is made up from different energies like that of fusion, vapourisation etc.
- The values of energy decrease from F_2 to I_2 . Thus, the oxidizing power of halogens also decreases in the same direction. Thus, order of oxidizing power is:

$$\text{F}_2 > \text{Cl}_2 > \text{Br}_2 > \text{I}_2 \quad (\text{weakest oxidizing agents})$$

- Since F_2 is the strongest oxidizing agent in the series, it will oxidize other halide ions to halogens in solution or when dry i.e., F_2 displaces other halogens from their corresponding halides



- Similarly Cl_2 will displace Br^- and I^- ions from their solutions and Br_2 will displace I^- ions from their solutions



THE ACIDITY OF THE HYDROGEN HALIDES

- All the halogen acids in the gaseous states are essentially covalent

However, in the aqueous solution they ionise to give solvated proton (H_3O^+) and hence acts as acids



- HF ionises only slightly while HCl, HBr, and HI ionise completely. Hence HF is the weakest acid and strength of these acids increases from HF to HI

The order of acidity is



- The weakest acidic nature of HF is due to the fact that the dissociation energy of H-F bond in HF molecule is the highest. Hence this molecule has least tendency to split up into H⁺ and F⁻ ions in aqueous solution
- The above order of the acidic strength of HX acids can also be explained on relative order of the basicity of the conjugate bases of these acids. The order is $\text{F}^- > \text{Cl}^- > \text{Br}^- > \text{I}^-$. Since a stronger conjugate base means a weaker acid, therefore the order of acidity of HX acids is $\text{HF} < \text{HCl} < \text{HBr} < \text{HI}$
- The hydrides show no acidic character when perfectly ionised.

HALIDE IONS AS REDUCING AGENTS

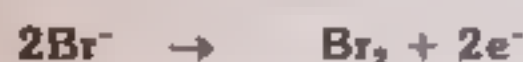
TRENDS IN REDUCING STRENGTH ABILITY OF HALIDE IONS

(THE REDOX REACTIONS BETWEEN HALIDE IONS AND CONCENTRATED SULPHURIC ACID)

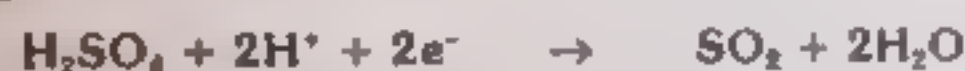
- Fluorides and Chlorides do not reduce concentrated sulphuric acid

With bromide ions

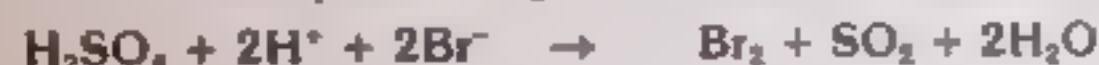
- ✓ The bromide ions are strong enough reducing agents to reduce the concentrated sulphuric acid
- ✓ In the process the bromide ions are oxidized to bromine



- ✓ The bromide ions reduce the sulphuric acid to sulphur dioxide gas
- ✓ This is a decrease of oxidation state of the sulphur from +6 in the sulphuric acid to +4 in the sulphur dioxide

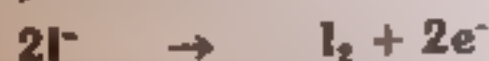


- Combine these two half-equations to give the overall ionic equation for the reaction



With iodide ions

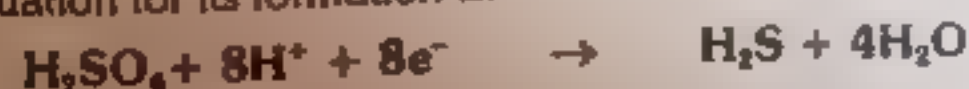
- ✓ Iodide ions are stronger reducing agents than bromide ions are
- ✓ They are oxidized to iodine by the concentrated sulphuric acid



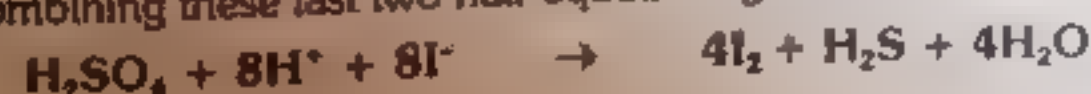
- The reduction of the sulphuric acid is more complicated than before. The iodide ions are powerful enough reducing agents to reduce it

- ✓ first to sulphur dioxide (sulphur oxidation state = +4)
- ✓ then to sulphur itself (oxidation state = 0)
- ✓ and all the way to hydrogen sulphide (sulphur oxidation state = -2)

- The most important of this mixture of reduction products is probably the hydrogen sulphide. The half equation for its formation is:



- Combining these last two half-equations gives



SUMMARY

- Fluoride and chloride ions won't reduce concentrated sulphuric acid
- Bromide ions reduce the sulphuric acid to sulphur dioxide. In the process, the bromide ions are oxidized to bromine
- Iodide ions reduce the sulphuric acid to a mixture of products including hydrogen sulphide. The iodide ions are oxidized to iodine
- Reducing ability of the halide ions increases as you go down the Group

Explanation

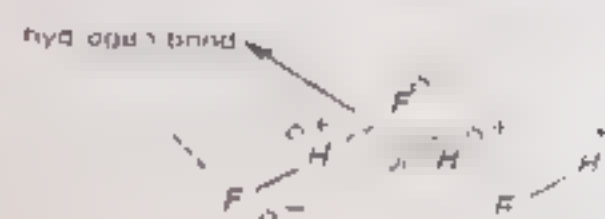
- When a halide ion acts as a reducing agent, it gives electrons to something else. That means that the halide ion itself has to lose electrons
- The bigger the halide ion, the further the outer electrons are from the nucleus and the more they are screened from it by inner electrons. It therefore gets easier for the halide ions to lose electrons as you go down the Group because there is less attraction between the outer electrons and the nucleus

QUICK QUIZ-11

(1) Give reasons of the following

- **HI is stronger acid than HF.**

It can be explained on following bases



- In HF molecules are Hydrogen-bonded in a zigzag manner. Thus, H-atom is entrapped between two F atoms as shown in the fig. So, H^+ ion cannot be donated easily
- The bond energy of H-F bond is considerably greater than H-I bond. Thus, HF cannot donate H^+ ions easily
- The conjugate base of HF is F^- ion which is a stronger base than I^- ion. Thus its corresponding acid, HI, will be weaker than HI

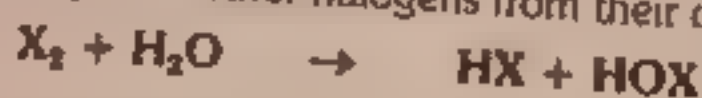
Hence, HI is a stronger acid than HF

- **Although H-bonding in HF is stronger than that in H_2O , H_2O has much higher b.pt.**
It is because, HF can make one hydrogen bond per molecule while water can make two hydrogen bonds per molecule. So, due to strong hydrogen bonding in water, it has higher boiling point than HF
 - **The acidic character of hydrides of VIIA elements increases on descending down the group.**
 - ✓ It is because down the group bond energy of H-X bond decreases, so the ease of donation of protons increases
 - ✓ Moreover, the order of basicity of their conjugate bases is $F^- > Cl^- > Br^- > I^-$. Since, a stronger conjugate base means a weaker acid, therefore, the order of acidity of HX acids is $HF < HCl < HBr < HI$
- Hence acidity increases down the group.

(2) Illustrate the oxidizing properties of halogens by giving example of two typical reactions.

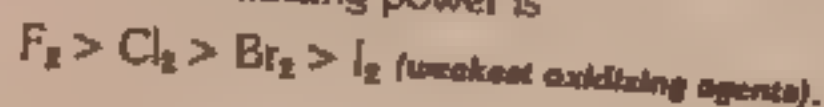
A substance that has a tendency to accept one or more electrons is said to show oxidizing property. The halogens have high electron affinity values and also high hydration energy values of their ions. Thus, they have a great tendency to accept electron and hence act as strong oxidizing agent

e.g. F_2 displaces other halogens from their corresponding halides.



(3) Arrange the halogens in the decreasing order of their oxidizing power.

The order of oxidizing power is



a) Give reasons for the following

i) Chlorine is a stronger oxidizing agent than iodine

It is due to two reasons

- The electron affinity of chlorine is greater than that of iodine.
- The hydration energy of chlorine is greater than that of iodine in aqueous solution. This is the main factor.

It means, the chlorine will take up electrons more easily than iodine. Hence, chlorine is a stronger oxidizing agent than iodine.

b) Halogens are the best oxidizing agents

A substance that has a tendency to accept electrons is called an oxidizing agent.

The halogens have high electron affinity and as a result, they have a great tendency to accept electrons from other substances.

e.g.



c) Fluorine is a better oxidizing agent than chlorine

It is due to two reasons

- The bond dissociation energy of fluorine is greater than that of chlorine.
- The main factor, however, is hydration energy. The fluorine molecule is more easily broken in water so it will form readily in solution. Thus fluorine will take up electrons more easily than chlorine. Hence, fluorine is a much stronger oxidizing agent than chlorine.

d) Electronegativity of halogens decreases in the order $F > Cl > Br > I$

It is due to increase in size of halogens down the group.

Due to increase in size, the distance of bonding pair increases from the nucleus. Hence, the bonding pairs are less strongly attracted and so the electronegativity decreases.

SOCIETY, TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE

Food and Beverage Canning

History

As early as 1940, can manufacturers began to explore adapting cans to package carbonated soft drinks. The important points were investigated for their production.

(1) The can had to be strengthened to accommodate higher internal pressure created by carbon dioxide (especially during warm summer months). It means increasing the thickness of the metal walls. However, otherwise, distortion of the end would strain the seal, creating potential leaks during storage and transit.

(2) Another concern for the new beverage can was its shelf life. Even small amounts of corrosion in the can could impair the drinking quality of both beer and soft drinks.

Fortunately, beer, which is only mildly acidic, is relatively noncorrosive. In contrast, beer, which has a limited shelf life of about three months in any package.

In contrast, the food acids, including carbonic, citric and phosphoric, are more corrosive. They cause corrosion of exposed tin and iron in the can.

The consequences of off-flavors, color changes and leakage through the metal can were significant. At this point, the can was upgraded by improving the organic coatings used to seal the inside.

ELEMENTS/METALS • THEIR MINING AND EXTRACTION

Different elements/metals are not obtained such rather these are obtained after passing through different steps. These steps are:

- (1) Mining and enrichment
- (2) Reduction
- (3) Refining and Casting

In fact some special methods are used to obtain each metal from its ores and to develop it into useful articles. However, few steps are common in the metallurgy of every metal. These are follows:

(1) MINING

(i) Crushing

- Obtaining ores by digging the rocks and hills is called mining.
- This work is done by engineers and laborers with the help of machines.
- But before this work it is confirmed by survey and analysis that obtaining metals from this is possible or not.

(ii) Grinding

- Breaking of rocks and larger stones into smaller size stones is called crushing.
- This is done by jaw crushers.

(iii) Hand Picking, Juggling and Shaking

- In Pakistan and other under developed countries where labour is cheap metallic stones are picked and separated by hands.
- Heavy metals are separated from useless material i.e. gangue, by shaking with change.
- In some countries this process is done by pressurized water.

(iv) Magnetic Separation

- The ground ore is passed over a magnetic belt which separates the magnetic metal from gangue.
- This process is used for metals which have magnetic properties like iron.

(2) REDUCTION

- For the complete separation of a metal from gangue, ores are heated at high temperature.
- At its melting point, molten metal is separated from solid gangue.
- Different metals are mixed with different compounds according to the type of impurities present in metal ore.
- Then they are passed through the process of reduction.
- The process of reduction is carried out in the blast furnace.

Blast Furnace

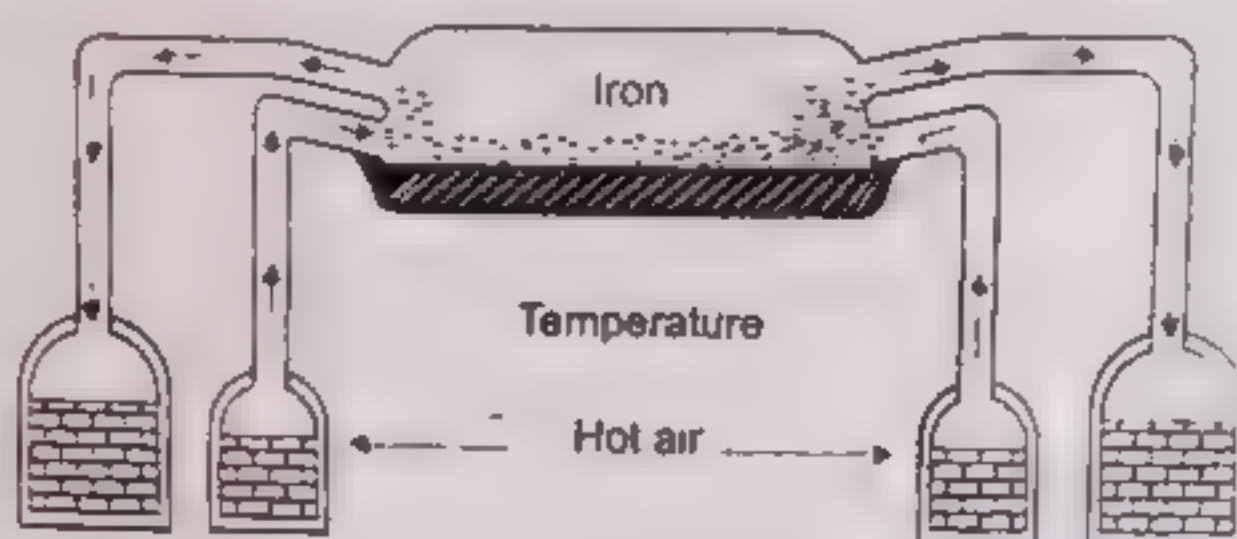
- It is lined inside with fire bricks.
- Its height and capacity are kept according to the requirement.
- Hot gases enter from lower side and ores are charged from the top of the furnace.
- Temperature is maintained at 1500°C to 3000°C .
- This furnace is usually used for iron and copper metallurgy.

REFINING OF METALS

Metals extracted in the above process are further refined by the following process

Van-Hearth Process

- A fire furnace is used to remove the impurities of metal
- It is lined inside with fire bricks and is just like a room
- Burning gases are entered from one side and exhaust gases are removed from the opposite end. The process is operated from opposite ends after an interval. Metals melt in a shorter time by this two way heating.

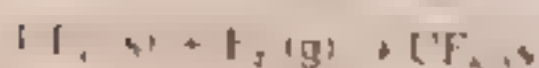


APPLICATIONS OF BLEACHING POWDER.

- Bleaching powder is actually a mixture of calcium hypochlorite CaOCl_2 and the calcium chloride $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ with some slaked lime, Ca(OH)_2 .
- Bleaching powders take time to dissolve in water and longer to work. But it has a longer shelf life in comparison to liquid bleaches and can be used on items like upholstery, carpet and some delicate fabrics.
- However, bleaching powder should never be combined with ammonia or other cleaning agents as they can cause fading.
- Bleaching powder is used for bleaching cotton and linen. It is also used in household cleaning, as a disinfectant sprays, moss and algae removers, and weedkillers.
- Bleaching powder is highly effective for cleaning inside the home and outdoors.
 - ✓ It can be used for removing mildew from fabric, cleaning countertops and removing mold between tiles, bathmats and shower curtains.
 - ✓ Outside, the agent can be used on plastic furniture, unpainted cement, etc. to eliminate mildew and other stubborn stains.
- Bleaching powder can be used to safely disinfect.
 - ✓ It can sterilize many things around the home including secondhand dishes, toys, and baby toys and furniture.
 - ✓ Bleaching powder is a highly effective means of returning the luster of silverware. Glassware can regain its sparkle by adding a small amount of powder to the water used for washing glasses.
- Gardening
 - ✓ To kill any annoying weeds growing from cracks and crevices, a solution of bleaching powder and water is applied.
 - ✓ Moss and algae on garden walkways can be easily eliminated by applying a diluted solution of bleaching powder in water.
 - ✓ Powdered bleach is also useful for sanitizing garden tools to avoid the spread of diseases.
 - ✓ Adding powdered bleach to the water of cut flowers will help to prevent the growth of bacteria in the vase.

COMMERCIAL USES OF HALOGENS

1. Fluorine is used in the manufacture of fluorocarbons.
2. Chlorine is used in the manufacture of bleaching powder, disinfectants, and dyes.
3. Bromine is used in the manufacture of dyes, drugs, and photographic materials.
4. Iodine is used in the manufacture of dyes, drugs, and photographic materials.



One of the most important fluorocarbons is poly (tetrafluoroethylene) which is frequently sold under the trade name Teflon or Teflon.

IODINE DEFICIENCY AND GOITER

Iodine Deficiency

- Iodine is an essential element needed for the production of thyroid hormone. The human body cannot synthesize iodine, so it is an essential element.
- Iodine deficiency leads to enlargement of thyroid gland called goiter.
- Iodine deficiency during pregnancy leads to mental retardation in children and infants is observed if their mothers suffered from iodine deficiency during pregnancy.
- Iodine deficiency was common in Appalachian and northwestern U.S. regions and in most of Canada. Approximately, 40% of the world's population remains at the risk of iodine deficiency.

Goiter

- The term goiter refers to the abnormal enlargement of thyroid gland due to deficiency of iodine in diet.
- It results in swelling in neck.
- It is important to know that the presence of goiter does not necessarily mean that the thyroid gland is malfunctioning (hypothyroidism). A goiter can also occur in a gland that is producing too much thyroid hormone (hyperthyroidism) or even the correct amount of hormone (euthyroidism).
- A goiter indicates there is a condition present which is causing the thyroid to grow abnormally.

FLUORIDE DEFICIENCY AND TOXICITY

FLUORIDE TOXICITY

- Fluoride toxicity or fluoride poisoning is a condition in which more fluoride is taken than the amount required for normal growth, development and metabolism.
- Fluoride toxicity is characterised by a variety of signs and symptoms.

- ALUMINUM DEFICIENCY**

- [illegible]
- [illegible]
 - (i) [illegible]
 - (ii) [illegible]
 - (iii) [illegible]
 - (iv) [illegible]

Halogens and their compounds are used as bleaching agents, disinfectants, fumigants, pesticides, solvents, etc.

(1) How different metals are extracted?

Differential Equations

- (i) Mining or extraction
- (ii) Reduction
- (iii) Refining and casting

(2) What problems are caused by fluoride deficiency?

Fluonde d'été, 1998-1999

- (i) Brittle bones or deformities
- (ii) Cavities
- (iii) Weakened tooth enamel
- (iv) Fluoride deficiency

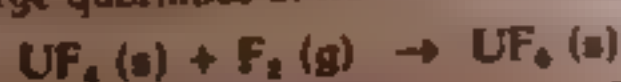
(3) What is golfer?

The term goiter refers to the abnormal swelling in neck. A goiter is abnormally

It is important to know that the presence of a malfunctioning (hypothyroidism). A greater amount of thyroid hormone (hyperthyroidism) or even the correct amount of thyroid hormone (euthyroidism) can affect the results of the test.

(4) How fluoride is useful for uranium separation

Large quantities of fluorine are used to make urea



KEY POINTS

- They lose one electron from their valence shell. They lose one electron of the valence shell.
- They form ionic compounds with s-block metals.
- They form covalent compounds with p-block elements.
- They form ionic compounds with d-block metals.
- They form ionic compounds with f-block metals.
- They form ionic compounds with group 2 which reacts with alkalis to give hydrogen. The other members are not.
- They form ionic compounds with group 17 which reacts with oxygen, nitrogen peroxide and hydrogen peroxide.
- The ability of an element to take part in chemical combination is termed as valency.
- The elements of group 17 have four electrons in their valence shell, two of which are in s-orbitals and two are in p-orbitals.
- The halogens are very reactive. The reactivity of halogens increases down the group, fluorine is a gas but iodine is solid.
- They form ionic compounds with s-block metals, covalent compounds with p-block elements and complex ions with d-block metals. Fluorides are usually ionic.
- They show oxidation states -1, +1, +3, +5, +7 but fluorine shows the oxidation state of -1 only.
- Oxidizing power of halogens decreases down the group in the following order: $F_2 > Cl_2 > Br_2 > I_2$
- Reducing power of halide ions decreases from I^- to Br^- . Chloride and fluoride ions are not reductants.

EXERCISE

Q1: Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

- (i) Oxides and hydroxides of Group I elements are:
(a) Acidic (b) Alkaline (c) Neutral (d) Amphoteric
- (ii) The flame colour of sodium metal or its compounds is
(a) bright crimson (b) violet (c) golden yellow (d) orange
- (iii) When sodium burn in air, it forms sodium:
(a) Monoxide (b) Peroxide (c) Oxide (d) Superoxide
- (iv) The carbonates of alkali metals are not affected by heat except,
(a) Li_2CO_3 (b) Na_2CO_3 (c) K_2CO_3 (d) Rb_2CO_3
- (v) Green is characteristic flame color of
(a) calcium (b) barium (c) strontium (d) sodium
- (vi) All the carbonates, sulphates and phosphates of alkaline earth metals are ...
(a) sparingly soluble (b) soluble (c) insoluble (d) less soluble In water
- (vii) The first ionization energy is higher for the-
(a) Alkaline earth metals (b) alkali metals (c) halogens (d) noble gases
- (viii) Which one of the element has the maximum electron affinity?
(a) F (b) Cl (c) Br (d) I
- (ix) Which pair has both members from same period of periodic table?
(a) Na-Ca (b) Na-Cl (c) Ca-Cl (d) Cl-Br
- (x) Melting points and boiling points of alkali metals
(a) decreases from top to bottom (b) increase from top to bottom
(c) first increases then decreases (d) remains unchanged
- (xi) Which one of the following oxides is Amphoteric in nature
(a) Rubidium oxide (b) Barium oxide (c) Antimony oxide (d) Sulphur oxide
- (xii) Oxidizing power of halogen depends upon
(a) energy of dissociation (b) electron affinity (c) heat of vaporization (d) heat of hydration
- (xiii) Which of following oxide is Amphoteric in nature?
(a) MgO (b) BeO (c) CO_2 (d) SnO
- (xiv) Select the correct increasing order of atomic radius?
(a) $\text{Ne} > \text{O} > \text{S} > \text{Al}$ (b) $\text{Ne} < \text{O} > \text{S} > \text{Al}$ (c) $\text{Ne} < \text{O} < \text{S} < \text{Al}$ (d) $\text{Ne} > \text{O} < \text{S} < \text{Al}$
- (xv) Due to inert pair effect Oxidation state is more stable than
(a) $2+, 4+$ (b) $1+, 4+$ (c) $4+, 2+$ (d) $2+, 3+$ For Sn and Pb
- (xvi) Highest electron affinity is shown by?
(a) F_2 (b) I_2 (c) Br_2 (d) Cl
- (xvii) Which is the strongest reducing agent?
(a) HF (b) HCl (c) HI (d) HBr
- (xviii) Substance boiling at higher temperature among following is?
(a) HI (b) HF (c) HCl (d) HBr
- (xix) Group VII-A elements are generally called
(a) Halogens (b) Noble gases (c) Inert gases (d) Metals
- (xx) The radioactive element in halogen group is:
(a) Radon (b) Radium (c) Astatine (d) Bismuth

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

- | | |
|---|---|
| (i) Ans: (b) Alkaline
Group I elements are highly electropositive metals. So, they form alkaline oxides and hydroxide e.g. Na_2O and NaOH | (ii) Ans: (c) golden yellow
Sodium metal or its compounds give golden yellow flame colour. |
| (iii) Ans: (b) Peroxide
Sodium form sodium peroxide i.e. $2\text{Na} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{O}_2$ | (iv) Ans: (a) Li_2CO_3
Lithium carbonate is not affected by heat. |

(iv) Amer (b) barium

(iv) Amer (b) barium

(vii) Amer (b) noble gases

(vii) Amer (b) Cl

(ix) Amer (b) Na-Cl

(ix) Amer (b) decreases from top to bottom

(xii) Amer (c) Antimony oxide

(xii) Amer (b) all of above

(xiii) Amer (b) BeO

(xiii) Amer (b) $\text{Na} < \text{O} < \text{S} < \text{Al}$

(xiv) Amer (b) 2+, 4+

(xiv) Amer (b) Cl_2

(xvii) Amer (b) HCl

(xvii) Amer (b) HF

(xix) Amer (b) Halogens

(xix) Amer (c) Antimony

Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

(i) Although Na and P are present in the same period yet their oxides are different in nature Na₂O is basic while P₂O₅ is acidic why?



Phosphorus is a non metal
produces H₃PO₄ which is an acid

formation of H₃PO₄



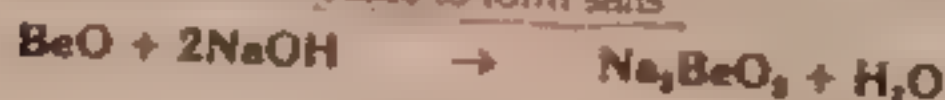
(ii) How acidic basic and amphoteric behaviour of oxides is explained?

An amphoteric oxide shows both acidic and basic properties e.g. BeO

It reacts with acids to form salts



It also reacts with bases to form salts



(i) Why the elements of group 1 are called alkali metals?

The word 'alkali' is an Arabic word meaning 'ashes'. The ashes of plants, especially sodium and potassium plants, when treated with water, form a solution which is called an alkali. These include Na, K, Rb, Cs etc. The metals of these elements are called alkali metals.

(ii) Why all group 1 metals have low ionization energies?

In any period, Group 1 metals have the largest atomic size and the outermost electron is far from the nucleus. Hence the ionization energy is low. e.g. Na^+ , K^+ etc.

(iii) Why do the group 1 metals show strong electropositive character?

Electropositivity is the ability to lose electrons. Group 1 metals have low electronegativity. So, it is easy to remove the outermost electron from these elements. Hence they show strong electropositive character. Group 1 metals are called electropositive metals.

(iv) Why do group 1 metals show strong reducing properties?

In any period, Group 1 metals have larger size and lower electronegativity. Hence they can easily lose electrons, i.e. they are easily oxidized. This property makes them strong reducing agents.

(v) Why different colours are imparted by the atoms of the group 1 metals to the flame?

In alkali metal atoms, the outermost electron is excited from its ground state to higher energy levels by absorbing energy. When it returns to its original position, it gives out absorbed energy in the form of radiations. Different amount of energy is absorbed and hence different colours are imparted by the atoms to the flame.

(vi) Why the elements of group 2 are called alkaline earth metals?

The alkaline earth metals are given this name because they are like alkalis in 'earth' crust. These include Be, Mg, Ca, Sr, Ba & Ra.

(vii) Why do the group 2 earth metals have high melting and boiling points than alkali metals?

The melting and boiling points of Group 2 elements are high because these elements have two valence electrons. So, the interatomic forces are strong.

(viii) How do group 1 metals resemble with group 2 metals?

1. Both alkali and alkaline earth metals are s-block elements.
2. Elements of both groups are highly electropositive.
3. Elements of both groups do not occur free in nature.
4. Hydroxides of both alkali and alkaline earth metals are basic.
5. On heating in Bunsen flame, elements of both groups impart characteristic colours.

(ix) How do group 1 metals differ from group 2 metals?

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. They have one electron in their outermost s-orbital. | 1. They have low melting points than alkaline earth metals. |
| 2. They have low melting points than alkaline earth metals. | 2. They have relatively larger atomic size. |
| 3. They have relatively larger atomic size. | 3. They are relatively softer than alkaline earth metals. |
| 4. The alkali metals are relatively softer than alkaline earth metals. | 4. They have relatively low values of ionization energy. |
| 5. They have relatively low values of ionization energy. | 5. They have high values of hydration energy. |

energies

6 Their oxides and
in nature

7 They do not
form acids

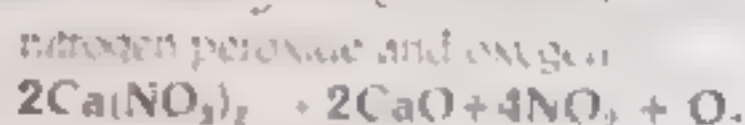
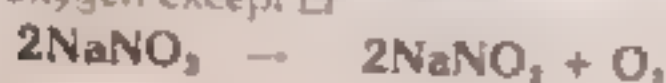


8 Their oxides are
weakly acidic

9 They are not
soluble in water

10 They are not
soluble in acids

11 On heating they
oxygen except Li



(xii) Discuss the metallic and non-metallic character of group 4 elements

The metallic character increases

- Carbon, Silicon and Germanium are non-metals
- "Grey tin" or "alpha tin" is a metal
- The "white tin" or "beta tin" is a metal with a close packed arrangement
- Lead also shows metallic bonding

Thus, a clear trend is observed down the group from non-metals to metals

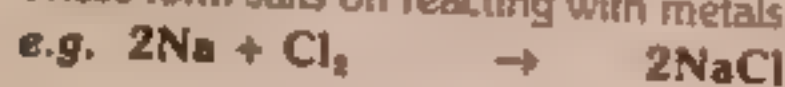
the bonds in a close
packed arrangement

(xiii) Discuss the general group trends of group 7 elements.

- Atomic radius, melting points and boiling points increases down the group due to greater shielding effect and less nuclear charge
- Electronegativity, electron affinity values decreases down the group due to increase in atomic size
- The bond enthalpies of the Cl-Cl, Br-Br and I-I bonds decreases down the group due to increase in atomic size except the F-F bond
- The oxidizing power decreases down the group.

(xiv) Why the term halogen is used for group 7 elements?

These form salts on reacting with metals, so they are called halogens. (Halo = salt, Gen = former)



Other examples: KBr, NaF, LiCl, RbCl etc

(xv) Why does fluorine differ from other members of its group?

Fluorine differs from its family members due to

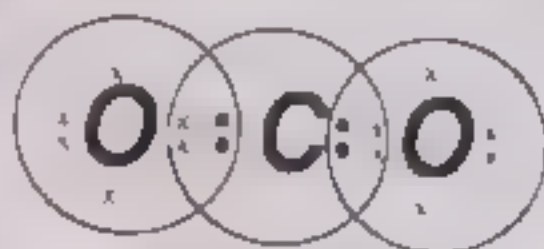
- Small size of F atom and F^- ion
- High first ionization energy and electronegativity
- Low dissociation energy of F_2 molecule as compared to Cl_2 and Br_2
- Valence shell restriction to an octet.

Differences

- F has very small size. Thus it can form effective overlap with other elements except N, O and itself. Thus it forms shorter and stronger bonds.
- Ionic fluorides have very high lattice energies than other halides, thus these are stable. It is due to this reason that fluorides of Ca, Mg, Ba and Sr are insoluble in water.
- F_2 molecule has very low dissociation energy. Thus it is very reactive. Other halogens react very slowly under similar conditions.
- Since valence shell of F is restricted to an octet. Therefore many of its compounds show inertness. CF_4 , SF_6 etc.
- Due to restriction to an octet, F shows only -1 oxidation state, while other halogens show variable oxidation states.
- Only F reacts with noble gases directly like Xe and Rn to form fluorides.

(xii) What is the structure of CO_2 and SiO_2 and why they differ?

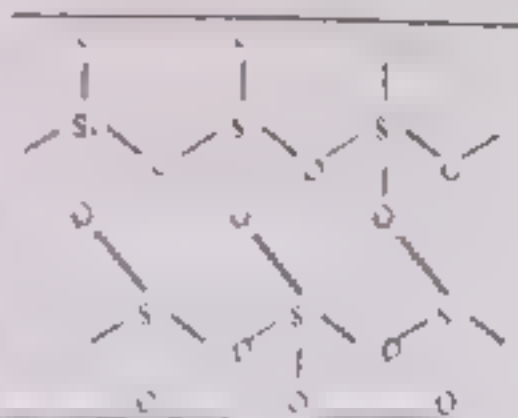
- The CO_2 exist in molecular form with weak intermolecular forces. Its dipole moment is zero, therefore it is a linear molecule. Due to weak forces it exists as gas at room temperature.



- The SiO_2 is a macromolecular compound. In this silicon and oxygen atoms are linked together covalently in continuous chains. Thus silicon dioxide is a non-volatile and hard solid unlike carbon dioxide.

The difference in structure of SiO_2 and CO_2 is due to the following two reasons:

- Silicon atoms are much larger in size than carbon atoms and thus tend to be surrounded by more oxygen atoms.
- Silicon forms only single bonds with oxygen atoms while carbon forms double bonds.



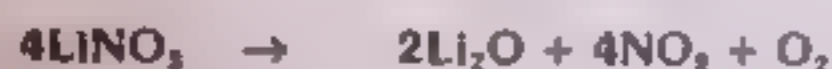
(xiii) CO_2 is a gas while SiO_2 is a solid although C and Si belong to the same group?

The CO_2 exist in molecular form with weak intermolecular forces. Its dipole moment is zero, therefore it is a linear molecule. Due to weak forces it exists as gas at room temperature.

The SiO_2 is a macromolecular compound. In this silicon and oxygen atoms are linked together covalently in continuous chains. Thus, silicon dioxide is a non-volatile and hard solid.

(xiv) Explain why nitrates and carbonates of Li are not stable?

The nitrates and carbonates of Li are decomposed on heating



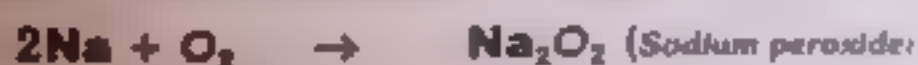
Li has small size. So, the gain in electrostatic attraction while converting to oxide is considerable. In case of large cation like K^+ , the gain in electrostatic attraction is relatively much less and the decomposition is difficult.

(xv) Differentiate the behaviour of Li and Na with atmospheric oxygen

Lithium burns in atmospheric oxygen to form the normal oxide, Li_2O



Sodium burns in atmospheric oxygen to form the peroxide



(xvi) Alkali metal carbonates are more soluble than alkaline earth metal carbonates. Why?

The alkali metal cations have relatively larger ionic size than alkaline earth metal cations. Moreover, they have M^+ ions. Therefore, in carbonates, they have loose packing of ions with weak forces. So their lattice energies are very low. Hence, they dissociate in water easily.

That is why alkali metal carbonates are more soluble than alkaline earth metal carbonates.

(xvii) Explain why stability/solubility of alkaline earth metal carbonates decrease down the group?

In alkaline earth metals, the ionic size increases down the group. Moreover, carbonate anion is a large anion. Generally, larger the size of ion, lesser is the hydration and solubility. So, due to difficulty in hydration of ions, the solubility of alkaline earth metal carbonates decreases down the group.

(xxii) Oxidizing power of F_2 is greater than I_2 . Why?

It is due to three reasons

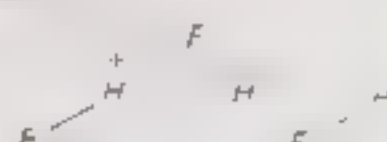
- The bond dissociation energy of fluorine is quite low, so it will dissociate easily.
- The electron affinity of F is greater than I, so it will take up electron more readily.
- The F^- ion has high hydration energy due to small size, so it will form readily in solution. This is the main factor.

It means that fluorine will take up electrons readily to form F^- ions than iodine. Hence, F_2 is a stronger oxidizing agent than iodine.

(xxiii) HF is weak acid than HI. Why?

In HF, molecules are Hydrogen-bonded in a zigzag manner. Thus, each H-atom is entrapped between two F atoms as shown in the fig.

Moreover, the bond energy of H-F bond is considerably greater than H-I bond. Thus, HF cannot donate its H^+ ions easily, hence it is a weaker acid.

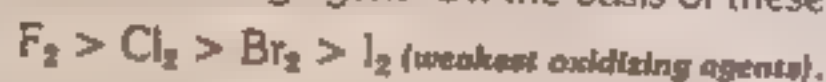


(xxiv) On what factors does the oxidizing power of halogens depend?

Following factors affect oxidizing power

- (a) Energy of dissociation (b) Electron affinities of atoms (c) Hydration energy of halide ions

If a halogen has low energy of dissociation, high electron affinity and high hydration energy, it will be a better oxidizing agent. On the basis of these factors, the order of oxidizing power is



Q3: Give detailed answers for the following questions

(i) (a) The pattern of first ionization energy and melting and boiling point is not smooth. Justify it.

Ionization Energies.

In a group in periodic table, the irregularity is due to the filling of the d-orbitals and f-orbitals by lower members of the group. Since d and f-orbitals have poor shielding effect, so they cannot shield the valence electron effectively. Hence, the pattern becomes irregular.

Melting and Boiling points:

Melting and boiling points largely depend upon the structure of elements

e.g. Group 1 and 2 elements exist as metallic crystals. Thus, the melting points and boiling points of group 1 and 2 elements decrease from top to bottom due to increase in size. It is because larger size atoms have weaker forces than smaller size atoms.

However, non-metals of groups 7 exist as molecular substances. So, melting points and boiling points increase from top to bottom. It is because, molecular size increases down the group. Larger molecules have greater polarizability, therefore, these have stronger intermolecular forces. Thus, melting points and boiling points increase down the group. Thus, the pattern of melting and boiling points is not smooth.

(b) Why atomic radius increases in group and decreases along the period.

- The number of shells in all the elements of a given period remains the same.
- The value of effective nuclear charge increases from left to right due to increase in number of protons.
- The increased effective nuclear charge pulls the electron cloud of the atom nearer to the nucleus and thus the size of the atoms and ions goes on decreasing from left to right.

The atomic radius increases down the group from lithium to caesium. It is because, down the group, the number of shells increases. So, the atomic volume increases. Hence, atomic and ionic radii (of M^+ ions) increase from lithium to caesium.

Describe the trends in reaction of period 3 elements with water.
See Page 7

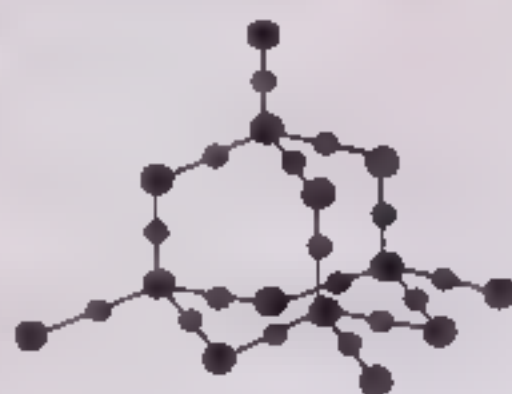
The melting and boiling points of the elements increase from left to right up to the middle in period 3 elements and decrease onward. Why?
See Page 6

Discuss the metallic oxides and silicon dioxide under the following headings

(a) Structures

Metallic oxides. Sodium, magnesium and aluminium oxides structure diagram is same as sodium chloride

Silicon dioxide. Crystalline silicon has the same structure as diamond. In this structure atoms of both silicon and oxygen are present. In SiO_2 , each silicon atom is bridged to its neighbouring silicon by an oxygen atom.



(b) Melting and Boiling points

Metallic oxides and silicon dioxide have giant structures. Thus they have high melting and boiling points. It is because a lot of energy is needed to break the strong bonds (ionic or covalent) operating in three dimensions.

(c) Electrical conductivity.

Metallic oxides: Metallic oxides are ionic in nature. They cannot conduct electricity in solid state because there are no free ions or electrons in solid state. However, the ionic oxides can conduct electricity in molten state. It is because free ions are present in molten state. These ions show movement towards the electrodes where they discharge themselves.

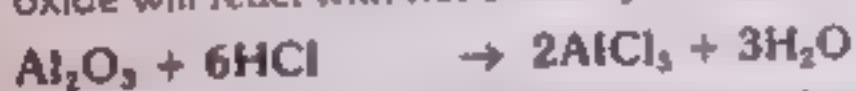
Silicon dioxide. In SiO_2 , all four electrons of Si are used in forming covalent bonds. Hence there are no free ions or electrons in SiO_2 so it will not conduct electricity.

(iii) Discuss acid-base behaviour of

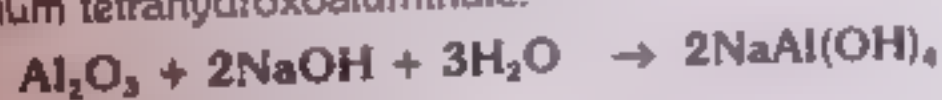
(i) Aluminium oxide

It is an amphoteric oxide. It gives reactions as both a base and an acid.

Aluminium oxide will react with hot dilute hydrochloric acid to give aluminium chloride solution.

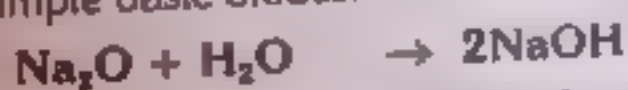


With hot, concentrated sodium hydroxide solution, aluminium oxide reacts to give colourless sodium sodium tetrahydroxoaluminate.

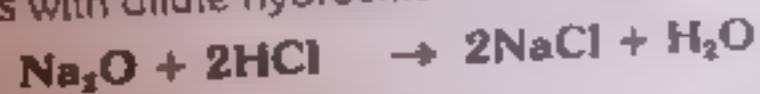


(ii) Sodium oxide

It is a simple basic oxide. It reacts with water to give the sodium hydroxide.



It reacts with dilute hydrochloric acid to give colourless sodium chloride solution and water.



(iv) (a) Why are different types of oxides formed as you go down the group?

(b) How Beryllium differs from other members of its group?

(c) Why is Beryllium chloride covalent and not ionic?

Beryllium is more electronegative and less electropositive than its family members. So, it does not lose its electron readily. Hence, it will not form ionic bond with chlorine. It will share its electrons with chlorine to form Beryllium chloride which will be covalent in nature.

(v) (a) Why do some metals form peroxides on heating in oxygen?

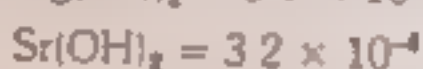
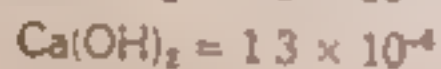
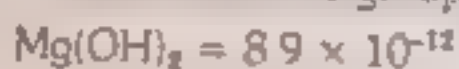
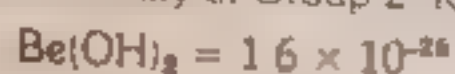
The peroxide ion has a weak covalent bond between two oxygen atoms. Small size metal ions have high charge density. So, when they combine with peroxide ion, they polarize it so much that peroxide ion is broken e.g. Li^+ , Be^{2+} , Mg^{2+} have high charge density due to smaller size so they cannot form peroxides. The metals which have larger atomic size have low charge density so they can form peroxides e.g. Na^+ , Ba^{2+} .

(b) Why do group 2 elements form nitrides on heating in air?

To form a group 2 metal nitride, energy is given for two purposes: (i) to form M^{2+} ion and (ii) to break and convert nitrogen molecule into nitride ion N^{3-} . Since, M^{2+} ions are small size so they have high charge density and hence develop strong attractions for N^{3-} ion. Therefore a lot of energy is released as lattice energy. As a result the energy given to form ions is compensated by the release of energy during lattice formation. Hence, the reaction becomes energetically favourable. Therefore, group 2 elements form nitrides. Similarly Li also form nitride.

(c) Discuss the trend in solubility of hydroxide of group 2 elements

The solubility of Group 2 hydroxides increases down the group as shown in the following table:



- Thus, $\text{Be}(\text{OH})_2$ and $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ are almost insoluble in H_2O .
- The hydroxides of other metals are slightly soluble.

It is because, lattice energy decreases down the group due to increase in size.

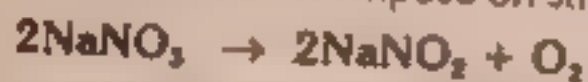
(vi) Discuss the trends in thermal stability of the carbonates and nitrates

Group 1 compounds are more stable to heat than the corresponding compounds. Group 2

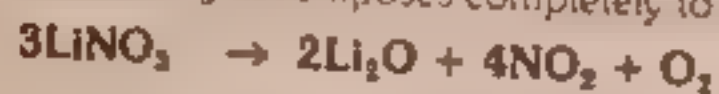
The lithium compounds behave similarly to Group 2 compounds

The rest of Group 1 behave similarly but in a different way than Group 2

- The carbonates (M_2CO_3) are highly stable to heat.
- With increase of electropositive character from Li to Cs, the stability of these salts increases.
- Their nitrates decompose on strong heating to the corresponding nitrite and O_2 .



- The LiNO_3 decomposes completely to give corresponding oxide NO_2 and O_2 .

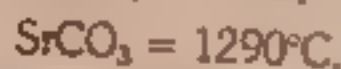
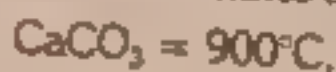
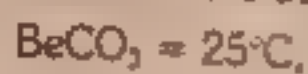


THE EFFECT OF HEAT ON THE GROUP 2 CARBONATES

- All carbonates decompose on heating at appropriate temperature evolving CO_2 .



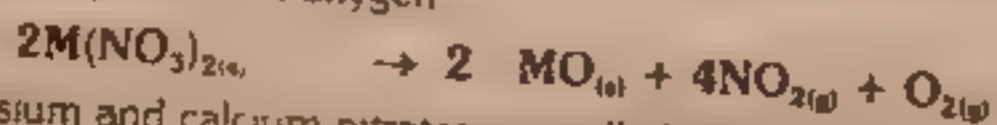
- The values of the decomposition temperatures of these carbonates as given below:



Thus ease of decomposition decreases down the group.

THE EFFECT OF HEAT ON THE GROUP 2 NITRATES

- All nitrates of Group 2 metals undergo thermal decomposition to give the metal oxide, nitrogen dioxide and oxygen.
- The nitrates are white solids, and the oxides produced are also white solids. Brown nitrogen dioxide gas is given off together with oxygen.

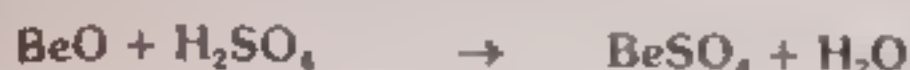


- Magnesium and calcium nitrates normally have water of crystallisation. So, the solid may dissolve in its own water of crystallisation to make a colourless solution before it starts to decompose.

(ii) Explain with examples that Beryllium hydroxide is Amphoteric?

An amphoteric oxide shows both acidic and basic properties e.g. BeO

It reacts with acids to form salts



It also reacts with bases to form salts



(iii) Explain the trends in oxidation states with suitable examples

See Page 38

(ix) Discuss the inert pair effect in the:

(a) formation of ionic bonds (b) formation of covalent bonds

See Page 39

x) Discuss in detail acid-base trend in group 4 oxides

See Page 43

(xi) Explain in detail the trends in group 7 of following physical properties

(a) Electronegativity (b) Electron affinity

See Page 45

(xii)(a) Why is the bond enthalpy of F-F less as compared to Cl-Cl and Br-Br?

- It is due to very small F-F bond length than other X-X bond lengths. So due to short distance the F atoms in F_2 molecule repel each other and thus the dissociation of F_2 molecule into F atoms becomes easy.
- X-X bond in Cl_2 and Br_2 molecules is stronger than F-F bond in F_2 molecule. It is due to the possibility of the formation of multiple bonds in X-X bond with d-orbitals.

Hence bond enthalpy of F-F bond is less as compared to Cl-Cl and Br-Br.

(b) Explain the order $\text{F} > \text{Cl} > \text{Br} > \text{I}$ with respect to oxidizing agent power

The oxidizing power of halogens depends upon dissociation energy, electron affinity and hydration energy. The net energy released from all these processes decreases down the group. Thus, formation of F^- ion releases most energy while formation of I^- ion releases least energy. It means that fluorine will take up electrons readily to form F^- ions. Thus, F_2 will have highest oxidizing power among halogens. Similarly, I_2 will have least oxidizing power among halogens.

Hence, the order of oxidizing power is $\text{F}_2 > \text{Cl}_2 > \text{Br}_2 > \text{I}_2$ (weakest oxidizing agents).

(xiii)(a) Why is fluorine much stronger oxidizing agent than chlorine?

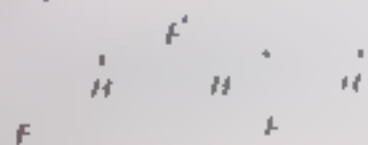
It is because

- The bond dissociation energy of fluorine is quite low, so it can take up electrons rapidly to form F^- ions.
- The other factor is hydration energy. The F^- ion has more hydration energy due to small size, so it will form F^- ions more readily in solution. Thus fluorine will take up electrons more readily to form F^- ions than chlorine. Hence fluorine is a much stronger oxidizing agent than chlorine.

(b) HCl is strong acid as compared to HF. Why?

In HF molecules are hydrogen-bonded in a zig-zag manner. The H atoms are attracted to F atoms as shown in the fig. Moreover, the bond energy of H-F bond is very high, so it is not easy to break. Thus HF cannot donate its H^+ ions easily, hence it is a weaker acid.

hydrogen bond



TEST YOUR SKILLS

Marks: 68

OBJECTIVE

Time 25 Minutes

Note (over writing)

Marks: 17

- (i) In a group the atomic radius increase due to successive increase of
(A) electronic shells (B) proton shells (C) neutron shells (D) nucleus
- (ii) Green is characteristic flame colour of
(A) calcium (B) barium (C) strontium (D) sodium
- (iii) The flame colour of sodium metal or its compounds is
(A) bright crimson (B) violet (C) golden yellow (D) blue
- (iv) Due to small size of Be^{+2} ion, the oxide of BeO is
(A) ionic (B) coordinate (C) covalent (D) none of these
- (v) Sulphur dioxide is fairly soluble in water, reacting with it to give solution of
(A) H_2SO_4 (B) H_2SO_3 (C) H_2SO (D) $NaHSO_3$
- (vi) Al_2O_3 is
(A) Amphoterlic oxide (B) Acid oxide (C) basic oxide (D) both a and b
- (vii) Peroxides of alkali metals on reaction with ice cold water produce
(A) metal oxide (B) metal hydroxide (C) metal (D) superoxide
- (viii) Highest electron affinity is shown by
(A) F_2 (B) I_2 (C) Br_2 (D) Cl_2
- (ix) Reducing powers of halide ions from I^- for Br^-
(A) increases (B) decreases (C) remain same (D) none of these
- (x) The increasing strength of halogens as oxidizing agents is
(A) $I_2 > Br_2 > Cl_2 > F_2$ (B) $F_2 < Cl_2 < Br_2 < I_2$ (C) $F_2 > Cl_2 > Br_2 > I_2$ (D) $I_2 < Br_2 < Cl_2 < F_2$
- (xi) All the carbonates, sulphates and phosphates of alkaline earth metals are
(A) Sparingly soluble (B) soluble (C) insoluble (D) less soluble
- (xii) Lead (II) chloride $PbCl_2$ is
(A) white solid (B) liquid (C) volatile compound (D) both a and b
- (xiii) Ge^{4+} compounds are
(A) Reducing agents (B) Oxidizing agents (C) both a and b (D) none of these
- (xiv) Substance boiling at higher temperature among following is
(A) HI (B) HF (C) HCl (D) HBr
- (xv) The reactivity of alkali metals generally increase from
(A) top to bottom (B) bottom to top (C) remain same throughout the group (D) none of these
- (xvi) The carbonates of alkali metals are not affected by heat except
(A) Li_2CO_3 (B) Na_2CO_3 (C) K_2CO_3 (D) Rb_2CO_3
- (xvii) The radioactive element in halogen group is
(A) Radon (B) Radium (C) Astatine (D) Bromine

Time: 2 35 Hours

SUBJECTIVE

Section - B (Marks 42) (14 x 3 = 42)

Total Marks Section B and C 68

- Q2. Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not exceed 5 to 6 lines.
- (i) Although Na and P are present in the same period yet their oxides are different in nature, Na_2O is basic and P_2O_5 is acidic. Why? (03)
- (ii) (a) Write down the reaction of Mg with cold and hot water. (03)
(b) Draw the structure of ortho silicic acid (02)
- (iii) Discuss the metallic and non-metallic character of group 8 elements (01)
- (iv) How hydrolysis of tetrahalides takes place (03)
- (v) CO_2 is a gas while SiO_2 is a solid although C and Si belong to the same group (03)
- (vi) HF is a weak acid than HI . Why? (03)
- (vii) (a) Show the amphoteric nature of BeO (03)
(b) Write down the names of product formed when $SiCl_4$ react with water (02)

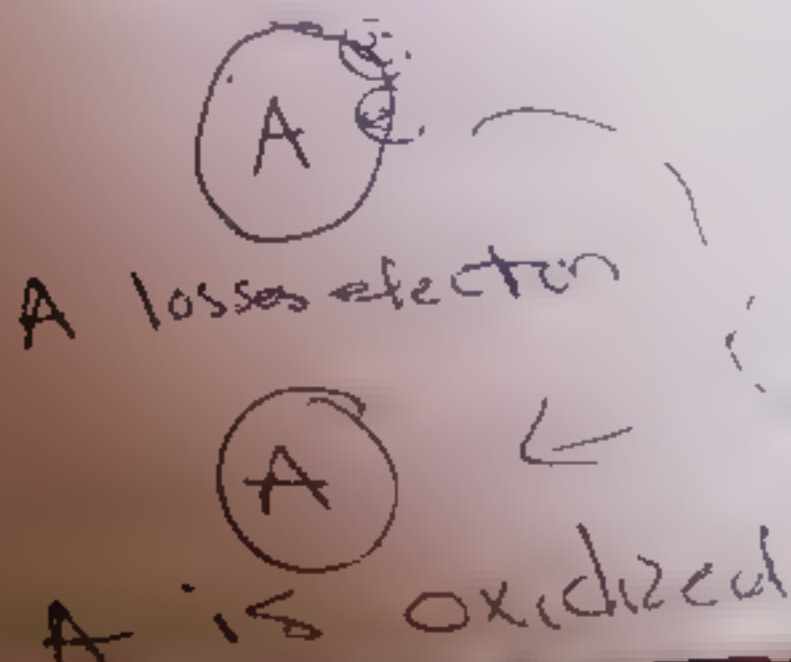
- (100) The oxidizing power of F is greater than Cl . Why?
- (100) Discuss the general group trends of group I elements.
- (100) How $NaOH$ react with H_3PO_4 ?
- (100) Discuss the behaviour of $AlCl_3$.
- (100) Explain why nitrates and carbonates of Li are not stable.
- (100) Differentiate the behaviour of Li and Na with amphoteric oxygen.
- (100) Explain why solubility of alkaline earth metal carbonates decrease down the groups.
- (100) Why do the group I metals show strong electropositive character?
- (100) Why normal oxides of alkali metals are not formed by the direct combination of metal with oxygen?
- (100) Explain the trend of density in alkali metals.
- (100) On what factors does the oxidizing power of halogen depends.
- (100) Why different colours are imparted by the atoms of the group & metals to the flame?

Section - C

Note: Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. (2 × 13 = 26).

- Q1. Discuss the metallic oxides and silicon dioxide under the following headings:
- Structures.
 - Melting and Boiling Points
 - Electrical conductivity
- Q2. (a) Why is fluorine much stronger oxidizing agent than chlorine.
(b) HCl is strong acid as compared to HF . Why?
(c) Explain the trends in detail of group I.
- Electronegativity
 - Electron affinity
- Q3. (a) The pattern of first ionization energy, and melting point.
(b) Why atomic radius increases in group and decreases along the period.
(c) Describe the trends in reaction of period 3 elements with water.
(d) Why Beryllium chloride covalent and not ionic.

Electronegativity &
* reduces after 1st ionization
and loses electron;
* oxidizing power increases
* Electron donor
→ H_2, C, Fe, Zn, Cu
Reducing agent



CHAPTER # 14

d and f-Block Elements: TRANSITION ELEMENTS

INTRODUCTION

Definition

The elements which have partially filled d or f-orbital either in their atomic states or in other common oxidation states are called transition elements.

- They are called d-block or f block elements
- d-block elements are called outer transition elements and f-block elements are called inner transition elements.

Why are they called transition elements?

- They are called transition elements because they show transition in properties between s- and p-block elements.
- Thus there is a transition between highly reactive and strongly electropositive elements of s-block which form ionic bonds on one side and p-block elements which form covalent compounds on other side.

Series of Transition Elements:

The d-block elements consist of following three series of ten elements each

- (1) **3d-Series:** From Scandium (Sc=21) to Zinc (Zn=30)
- (2) **4d-Series:** From Yttrium (Y=39) to Cadmium (Cd=48)
- (3) **5d-Series:** From Lanthanum (La=57) to Mercury (Hg=80) [Lanthanide series rare earth series excluded]

The f-block elements constitute two series which are

- (1) **4f-Series:** From Cerium (Ce = 58) to Lutetium (Lu = 71)
- (2) **5f-Series:** From Actinium (Ac = 89) to Lawrentium (Lr = 103) which are called actinides

General outermost configurations:

- (1) d-block elements = $(n-1)d^{1-10} ns^2$
- (2) f-block elements = $(n-1)d^1 (n-2)f^{1-14} ns^2$

Remember!

The electronic configuration of $_{25}\text{Mn}$ is $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^5$ or $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^5 4s^2$. So, the valence subshell is $4s^2$ i.e. ns^2 , then d-subshell is $3d^5$ i.e. $(n-1)d^5$. Thus, coefficient of d subshell is one number less than the s-subshell. So, the general configuration is $(n-1)d^{1-10} ns^2$. The d^{1-10} means 1 to 10 electrons may be present. Similarly, for f-block the d-subshell is one number less but the f-subshell is two numbers less than the s-subshell. Thus, their general configuration is $(n-1)d^1 (n-2)f^{1-14} ns^2$.

Why is Zn-group included in Transition elements?

Zn, Cd and Hg are not regarded as transition elements because they have completely filled d orbitals. However, they are included in transition elements because they form complexes with ammonia, halide ions and amines. Their chemical behaviors is similar to transition elements.

Coinage metals are transition elements. Justify the statement.

Coinage metals are Cu, Ag, Au. They are transition elements since Cu^{2+} has $3d^9$ configuration, Ag^{2+} has $4d^9$ and Au^{3+} has $5d^8$ configurations. Although all these metals have d^{10} configurations in atomic states.

Following diagram show the position of d block element.



Exercise Q3(1) (b) What are typical and non-typical transition elements?

Typical and non-Typical Transition Elements.

The elements of the group II-B and III-B have the electronic configuration

U-B

$$_{30}\text{Zn} = \dots 4s^1 3d^{10}$$
$$_{48}\text{Cd} = \dots 5s^2 4d^{10}$$
$$_{80}\text{Hg} = \dots 6s^2 5d^{10}$$

11-8

$$_{21}\text{Sc} = 4s^2 3d^1$$
$$_{39}\text{Y} = 5s^2 4d^1$$
$$57\text{La} = 6s^2 5d^1$$

- It is clear that the elements of II-B i.e. Zn , Cd and Hg are in d^0 state or ionic state. They do not show the typical properties to an extent.
- The elements of the group III-B are $_{21}Sc$, $_{39}Y$ and $_{57}La$. They are transition elements. In the compound state they show transition properties. They do not have any electron in d-orbitals.

For these reasons, the elements of group I, B and "B are

Non-Typical Transition Elements	Typical Transition Elements
II-B and III-B	I-B

GENERAL FEATURES

GENERAL FEATURES OF TRANSITION ELEMENTS

- (1) They are all metallic in nature
- (2) Some of the transition elements play an important role in the chemistry of life. W, Zr, Nb, Ta and Th etc.
- (3) They are all hard and strong metal with high melting points and good conductors of electricity.
- (4) They form alloys with one another and other elements.
- (5) With a few exceptions, they show variable oxidation states.
- (6) Their ions and compounds are colored in the solid state and in solution.

QUICK QUIZ-1

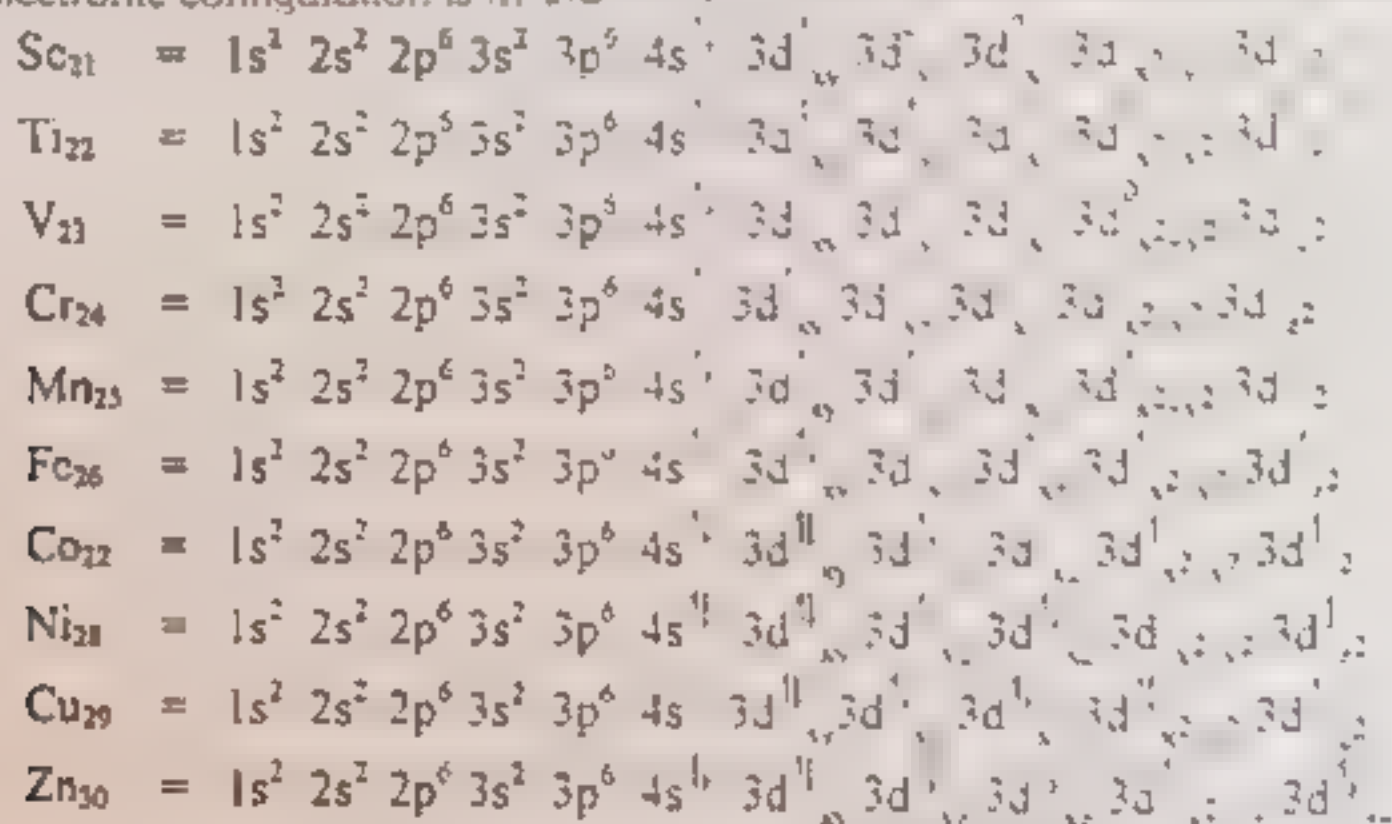
(1) Give the electronic configuration of the elements of first transition series

First Transition series is 3d-series. It includes 10 elements from 21Sc to 30Zn.

(The electronic configuration is given below)

(2) Write the general state electronic configuration (s, p, d, f) of the elements of the first transition series (Z=21 to 30) indicating the number of unpaired electrons in each case

The general state electronic configuration is $(n-1)d^{1-10}ns^2$. The number of unpaired electrons in the configuration of each element is given below.



(3) Give the names, symbols and electronic configuration of the elements of second transition series

The second transition series is 4d-series. It includes 10 elements from 39Y to 48Cd. The electronic configuration of 4-d series elements is

4d-Series Transition Elements		
Elements Symbol	Name	Electronic configuration
$_{39}\text{Y}$	Yttrium	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^1$
$_{40}\text{Zr}$	Zirconium	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^2$
$_{41}\text{Nb}$	Niobium	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^3$
$_{42}\text{Mo}$	Molybdenum	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^1 4d^5$
$_{43}\text{Tc}$	Technetium	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^5$
$_{44}\text{Ru}$	Ruthenium	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^6$
$_{45}\text{Rh}$	Rhodium	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^7$
$_{46}\text{Pd}$	Palladium	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^8$
$_{47}\text{Ag}$	Argentum (Silver)	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^1 4d^{10}$
$_{48}\text{Cd}$	Cadmium	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^{10}$

(4) Discuss the trends and variation in oxidation states (valency) of transition metals.
See Page 70

(5) Explain the magnetic properties of transition metals.
See Page 71

(6) What do you understand by diamagnetism and paramagnetism.
See Page 71

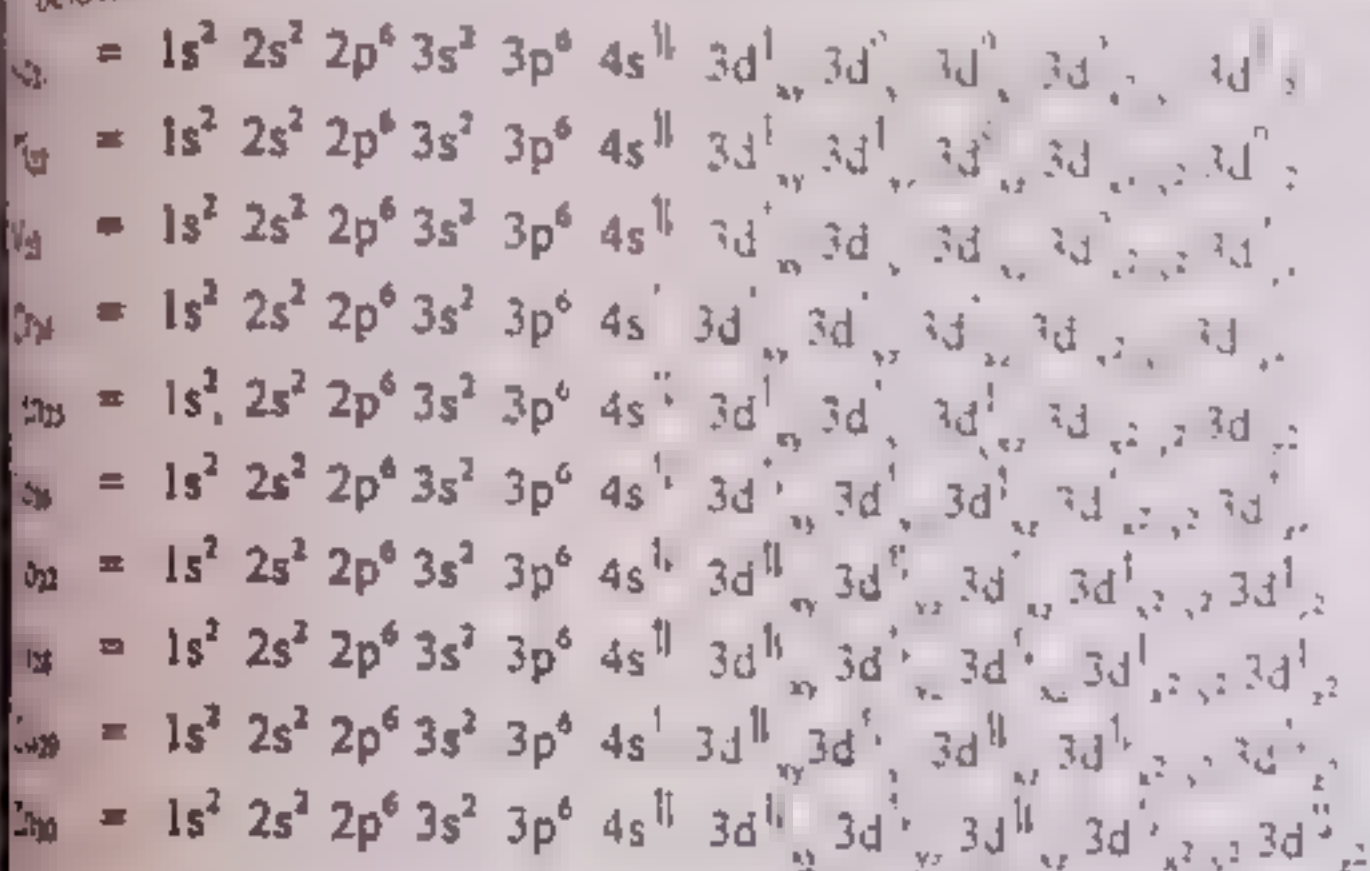
Exercise Q3(ii)(a) What is the valence shell configuration of transition elements?

How does it affect the following properties? (i) Ionization energy, (ii) Atomic radius

page 70

ELECTRONIC STRUCTURE

Electronic distribution of first series of transition elements is given below



		3d	4s
Sc (Ar)		\uparrow	\uparrow
Ti (Ar)		$\uparrow \uparrow$	$\uparrow \uparrow$
V (Ar)		$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow$	$\uparrow \uparrow$
Cr (Ar)		$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow$	\uparrow
Mn (Ar)		$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow$	$\uparrow \uparrow$
Fe (Ar)		$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow$	$\uparrow \uparrow$
Co (Ar)		$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow$	$\uparrow \uparrow$
Ni (Ar)		$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow$	$\uparrow \uparrow$
Cu (Ar)		$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow$	\uparrow
Zn (Ar)		$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow$	$\uparrow \uparrow$

ELECTRONIC DISTRIBUTION OF 4d AND 5d-SERIES:

- The following table shows the electronic distribution of 4d and 5d series.
- The elements of the group number VI-B, i.e. Cr group shows the same pattern.
- Similarly, the elements of the group I-B that is Cu-family also show the same pattern.
- Following table shows the electronic distribution of 3d, 4d, 5d series

3d-block elements		4d-block elements		5d-block elements	
Elements	Electronic configuration	Elements	Electronic configuration	Elements	Electronic configuration
Sc (21)	[Ar] $3d^1 4s^2$	Y (39)	[Kr] $4d^1 5s^2$		
Ti (22)	[Ar] $3d^2 4s^2$	Zr (40)	[Kr] $4d^2 5s^2$		
V (23)	[Ar] $3d^3 4s^2$	Nb (41)	[Kr] $4d^4 5s^1$		
Cr (24)	[Ar] $3d^5 4s^1$	Mo (42)	[Kr] $4d^5 5s^1$		
Mn (25)	[Ar] $3d^5 4s^2$	Tc (43)	[Kr] $4d^5 5s^2$		
Fe (26)	[Ar] $3d^6 4s^2$	Ru (44)	[Kr] $4d^7 5s^1$		
Co (27)	[Ar] $3d^7 4s^2$	Rh (45)	[Kr] $4d^8 5s^1$		
Ni (28)	[Ar] $3d^8 4s^2$	Pd (46)	[Kr] $4d^10$		
Cu (29)	[Ar] $3d^{10} 4s^1$	Ag (47)	[Kr] $4d^{10} 5s^1$		
Zn (30)	[Ar] $3d^{10} 4s^2$	Cd (48)	[Kr] $4d^{10} 5s^2$		

Exercise Q3(i)(a). What is the valence shell configuration of transition elements?
 For this see above page 69
 How does it affect the following properties?
 (i) Binding energy (ii) Paramagnetism (iii) oxidation states

BINDING ENERGY

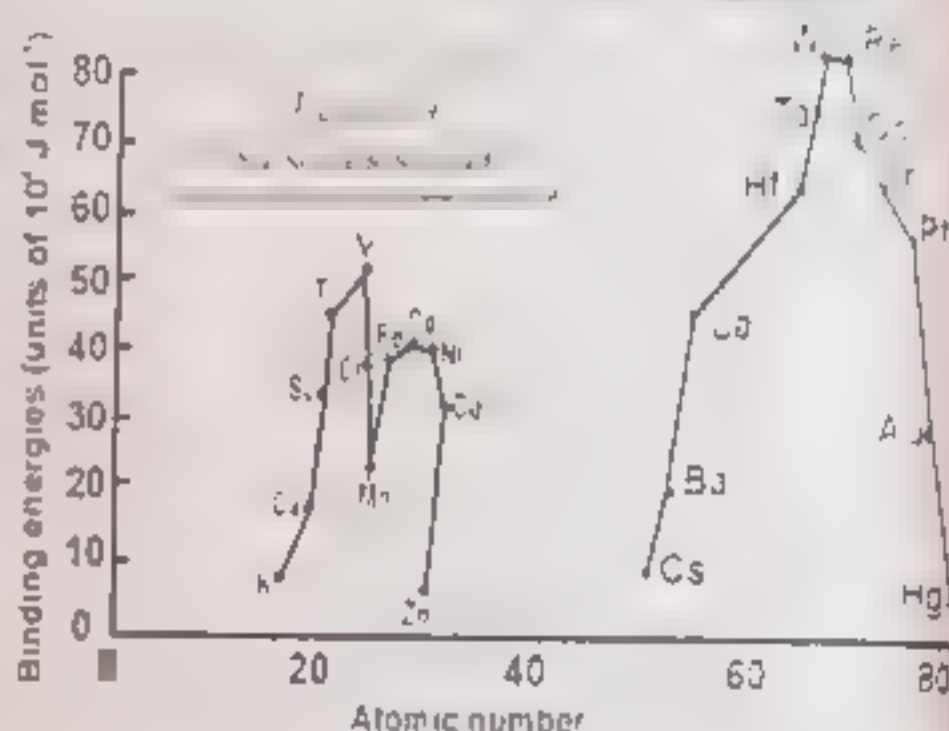
- The mechanical properties of transition elements are related to the binding energy.
- Transition elements are tough, malleable and ductile.

The toughness of the metals is due to greater binding energies

It is because the s-electron of outermost shell takes part in chemical bonding. However, the electrons of partially filled d-orbitals also participate in bonding. So, they have greater binding energies and toughness

Variation in binding energies

- The number of unpaired electrons increases up to group V-B from left to the right in any d-block series. i.e., up to V family (group V-B or group 5) or Cr family (group V-B or group 6)
- After that the pairing of electron starts
- The unpaired electrons become zero at group II-B
- It means that binding forces go on increasing up to Cr and then decrease after that. This is shown for the elements of 3d and 5d series in the figure



Quick Quiz-1 (4): Discuss the trends and variation in oxidation states (valency) of transition metals

VARIABLE OXIDATION STATES

- Transition elements are electropositive, so they have positive oxidation states
- All 3d series elements show an oxidation state of +2 in addition to higher oxidation states when the electrons of 4s-orbital take part in bonding
- Transition elements show variable oxidation states. The reason is that they have d-electrons in addition to s-electron for bond formation. These elements have several (n-1) d and ns electrons. The energies of (n-1) d and ns orbitals are very close to each other. The (n-1) d electrons are as easily lost as ns electrons
- In the highest oxidation states of first five elements, all s and d-electrons are used for bonding.
- Among the 3d series, Mn has maximum oxidation states, and goes up to +7.
- The oxidation numbers +2 and +3 are more common.
- Positive oxidation states increase up to the middle of series and after that they decrease. It is because the number of unpaired electrons increases up to the middle and then decreases

		3d	4s	Oxidation states
Sc	[Ar]	3d ¹ 4s ²	1	2 3
Ti	[Ar]	3d ² 4s ²	1 1	2 3 4
V	[Ar]	3d ³ 4s ²	1 1 1	2 3 4 5
Cr	[Ar]	3d ⁵ 4s ¹	1 1 1 1 1	2 3 4 5 6
Mn	[Ar]	3d ⁵ 4s ²	1 1 1 1 1	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Fe	[Ar]	3d ⁶ 4s ²	1 1 1 1 1	1 2 3 4 5 6
Co	[Ar]	3d ⁷ 4s ²	1 1 1 1 1	2 3 4 5
Ni	[Ar]	3d ⁸ 4s ²	1 1 1 1 1	2 3 4
Cu	[Ar]	3d ¹⁰ 4s ¹	1 1 1 1 1	1 2 3
Zn	[Ar]	3d ¹⁰ 4s ²	1 1 1 1 1	2

Quiz-1 (5): Explain the magnetic properties of transition metals

Quiz-1 (6): What do you understand by diamagnetism and paramagnetism

MAGNETIC BEHAVIOUR

Paramagnetism

The compounds attracted into the magnetic field are called paramagnetic and the phenomenon is called paramagnetism.

Diamagnetism

Transition elements and their compounds show paramagnetism.

Paramagnetism is due to the unpaired electrons in the d-orbitals.

Examples: Mn^{2+} , Fe^{2+} etc

Diamagnetism

The compounds which are slightly repelled by magnetic field are called diamagnetic and the phenomenon is called diamagnetism.

Some substances in which even number of electrons are present are diamagnetic.

Examples: Zn^{2+} , Sc^{3+} etc

Ferromagnetism

The substances which can be magnetized are called ferromagnetic and the phenomenon is called ferromagnetism.

Antiferromagnetism

e.g. Fe, Co and Ni are ferromagnetic

Magnetic moment

The magnetic moment (μ) is related to the number of unpaired electrons.

$$\mu = \sqrt{n(n+2)} \text{ , where } n = \text{number of unpaired electrons}$$

It is measured in Bohr magneton. Its symbol is μ_B

By measuring magnetic moment, the nature of transition metal compound can be calculated.

Exercise Q3(i) (c) Explain catalytic Activity of transition elements

CATALYTIC ACTIVITY

Most of the transition elements are used as catalysts. The compounds of transition elements are also used as catalysts.

due to following reasons

- The reason is that the transition metals show variety of oxidation states and form various products with various reactants.
- They also form interstitial compounds which can absorb an activator molecule.

Some of the important examples of catalysts are as follows

- (1) A mixture of ZnO and Cr_2O_3 is used for the manufacture of methyl alcohol.
- (2) Ni, Pt and Pd are catalysts for the hydrogenation of vegetable oil and synthesis of ammonia.
- (3) MnO_2 can be used as a catalyst for the decomposition of H_2O_2 .
- (4) $TiCl_4$ is used as catalyst for the manufacture of plastics.
- (5) V_2O_5 is used to oxidize SO_2 to SO_3 in the manufacture of H_2SO_4 .
- (6) Fe is used as a catalyst for synthesis of NH_3 in Haber's process about 1% of Na_2CO_3 or K_2O and about 1% of Al_2O_3 are added as promoters. Mo is also sometimes used as a promoter.

ALLOY FORMATION

- Alloy is mixture of two or more metals.
- Transition metals form alloys with each other. The atoms of the different metals are mixed together to form alloys.

Example.

- Alloy steels are the materials which have better properties than iron.
- Brass, bronze and coinage alloys are the best alloys.

Properties:

As alloys are prepared by mixing different metals.

However, few properties are common to all alloys.

- Alloys are comparatively cheap.
- They are strong and flexible but hard alloys can also be prepared.
- They have long life because they do not corrode.
- They are durable.
- They have high melting points.
- They are better conductor but non-conductor alloys are also prepared.

Exercise Q3(i) (d) Write composition, properties and uses of Brass, Bronze and Nichrome alloys.

Alloys of Metals	Composition	Properties and Uses
Brass	Cu = 60 - 80 % Zn = 20 - 40 %	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is a strong alloy of copper which is soft and flexible. It does not corrode. Due to low melting point, it is easy to use. It is used to make locks, keys, water taps, pipes, artificial joints, door handles and parts of machines.
Bronze	Cu = 90 - 95 % Sn = 5 - 10 %	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is strong, brilliant and long lasting. It does not corrode. It is used to prepare medals, coins, badges and bullets etc. Besides these, decorative articles are also made from this alloy.
Nichrome		It is used in electric heaters and filaments of furnaces.

QUICK QUIZ-2:

(1) How magnetic moment is measured

- Theoretically, the magnetic moment (μ) is related to the number of unpaired electrons (n) by the equation

$$\mu = \sqrt{n(n+2)}$$
, where n = number of unpaired electrons in a substance.
- Experimentally, the magnetic moment of compounds is generally measured by Guoy balance method.

(2) Give unit of magnetic moment

The magnetic moment is measured in the units of Bohr Magneton. Its symbol is μ_B .

(3) Give difference between nichrome and bronze

Both these are alloys.

The nichrome alloy consists of Ni = 60 %, Cr = 15 % and Fe = 25 %.

The Bronze alloy consists of Cu = 90 - 95 % and Sn = 5 - 10 %.

14 d and f-Block Elements Transition Elements

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Name the catalyst use for

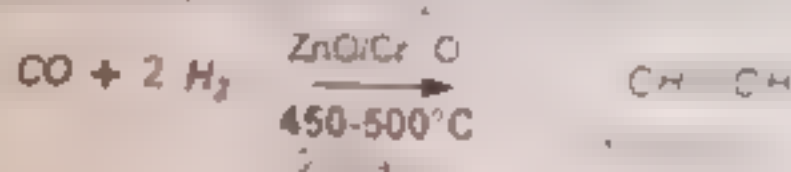
(i) Decomposition of H_2O_2

Manganese(IV) oxide MnO_2



(ii) Manufacturing of CH_3OH

Reaction



On which factor binding energy depends

The binding energy depends on the number of unpaired electrons present in the d-orbitals. As the number of unpaired electrons increases up to the middle and then decreases.

Why transition element shows variable oxidation state

They show variable oxidation states due to the formation of these elements have very close to each other first two oxidation states.

Which property of transition elements enable them to serve as catalyst

- The reason is that the transition metals show intermediate products with various reactants.
- They also form interstitial compounds which are used as catalysts.

Why alloys are prepared?

- Alloys are prepared due to several desirable properties e.g.
- Alloys are comparatively cheap
 - They are strong and flexible but hard alloys can also be prepared
 - They have long life because they do not corrode
 - They have high melting points

COORDINATION COMPOUNDS

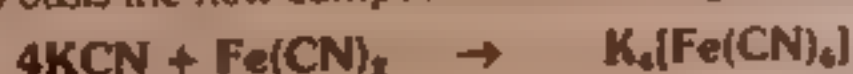
Definition:

Those compounds which contain complex molecules or complex ions capable of independent existence are called coordination compounds or complex compounds.

Such compounds are formed by the coordination of an electron pair donor to metal atom or ion.

Explanation:

- Let two substances are mixed together, i.e., KCN and $Fe(CN)_2$
- When this mixture is evaporated, a new compound is obtained
- This compound when dissolved in water ionizes into K^+ and $[Fe(CN)_6]^{4-}$
- On this basis the new compound has been given the formula $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$



$[Fe(CN)_6]^{4-}$ is called complex ion.

PARTS OF COMPLEX COMPOUND AFTER DISSOCIATION IN A SOLVENT

A complex compound is mostly made up of two parts

- (1) Positively charged ion
- (2) Negatively charged ion

e.g. in $K_4Fe(CN)_6$, K^+ is a cation and $[Fe(CN)_6]^{4-}$ is an anion

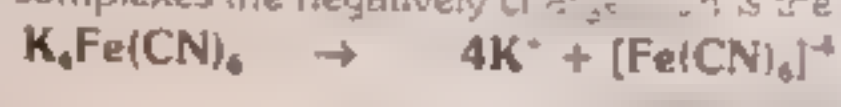
Complex ion as Cation.

In some of the complexes, the positively charged ion is complex ion



Complex ion as Anion

In some of the complexes the negatively charged ion is the complex ion



COMPONENTS OF COMPLEX COMPOUNDS

Complex compound consist of three components:-

1. A positively or negatively charged ion which is not complex
2. A central metal atom or ion which is consisted of transition element
3. Electron pair donor which is negatively charged, positively charged or neutral

(A) CENTRAL METAL ATOM OR ION

A metal atom or ion is usually a transition element. It is surrounded by a number of ligands

Examples:

- (1) In $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$, Fe^{+2} is the central metal ion. Six ligands CN^- ions are surrounding it
- (2) In $K_3[Fe(CN)_6]$, Fe^{+3} is the central metal ion. Six ligands (CN^-) ions are surrounding it
- (3) In $[Cu(NH_3)_4]SO_4$, Cu^{+2} is the central metal ion. Four ligands (NH_3) ions are surrounding it
- (4) In $[Ag(NH_3)_2]Cl$, Ag^{+2} is the central metal ion. Two ligands (NH_3) are surrounding it

Exercise Q3(ii) (a) Explain different types of ligand with examples

(B) LIGAND

The atom, ion (usually anions) or neutral molecule which surrounds the central metal atom or ion by donating the electron pair is called ligand.

Examples:

- (1) In $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$ and $K_3[Fe(CN)_6]$, CN^- is the ligand.
- (2) In $[Cu(NH_3)_4]SO_4$ and $[Ag(NH_3)_2]Cl$, NH_3 is the ligand

TYPES OF LIGANDS.

Depending upon number of donatable electron pairs, ligands are of many types.

(1) Monodentate Ligands:

Those ligands which have only one donatable electron pair. Such ligands may be negatively charged, or neutral

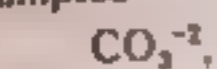
Examples:

- (1) Negatively charged ligands F^- , Cl^- , Br^- , I^- , OH^- , CN^-
- (2) Neutral ligands H_2O , NH_3 , CO

2) Bidentate ligands.

Those ligands which have two donatable electron pairs are called bidentate ligands.

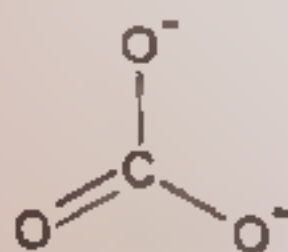
Examples



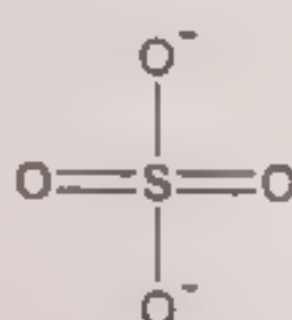
Carbonate ion



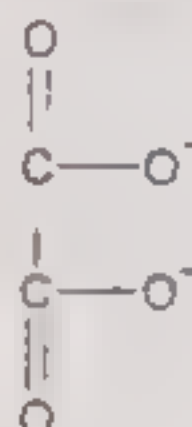
Sulphate ion



carbonate ion



sulphate ion



oxalate ion

3) Tridentate ligands.

Those ligands which have three donatable electron pairs are called tridentate ligands.

Example:



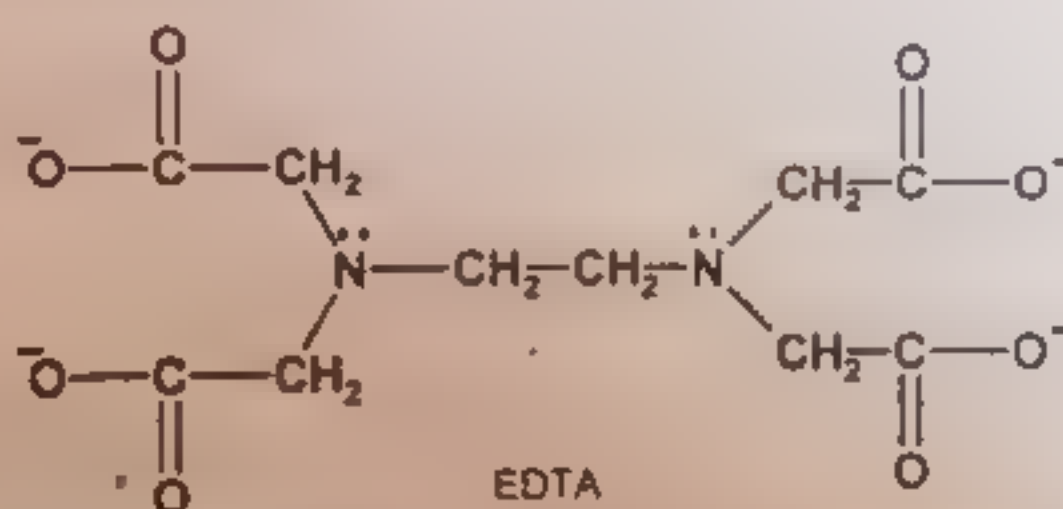
Diethylene triamine

4) Hexadentate ligands:

Those ligands which have six donatable electron pairs are called hexadentate ligands.

Example:

Ethylenediaminetetracetate (EDTA)



EDTA

COORDINATION NUMBER OR LIQUANCY:

It is the total number of the atoms of the ligands that can coordinate to the central metal ion. Numerically, coordination number represents the total number of the chemical bonds formed between the central metal ion and the donor atoms of the ligands.

Examples:

- (1) In $\text{K}_4[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$, the coordination number of Fe^{+2} is six.
- (2) In $[\text{Cu}(\text{NH}_3)_4]\text{SO}_4$, the coordination number of Cu^{+2} is four.
- (3) In $[\text{Ag}(\text{NH}_3)_2]$, the coordination number of Ag^+ is two.
- (4) In $[\text{Ni}(\text{CO})_4]$, the coordination number of Ni^0 is four.

(D) COORDINATION SPHERE

The central neutral atom or ion along with ligand is called coordination sphere. It is usually placed in the square brackets. It may be positively charged, negatively charged or neutral.

Examples:

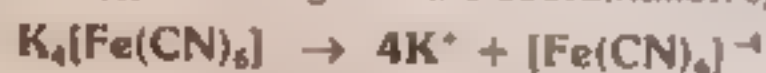
- (1) In $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$, the ion $[Fe(CN)_6]^{-4}$ is the coordination sphere of this complex compound.
- (2) In $[Cu(NH_3)_4]SO_4$, the ion $[Cu(NH_3)_4]^{+2}$ is the coordination sphere of this complex compound.
- (3) In $K_3[Fe(CN)_6]$, the ion $[Fe(CN)_6]^{-3}$ is the coordination sphere of this complex compound.
- (4) In $[Ag(NH_3)_2]Cl$, the ion $[Ag(NH_3)_2]^{+1}$ is the coordination sphere of this complex compound.
- (5) In $[Ni(CO)_4]$, the ion $[Ni(CO)_4]$ is the coordination sphere of this complex compound.

(E) CHARGE ON THE COORDINATION SPHERE

It is the algebraic sum of charges present on the central metal ion and total charge on the ligands.

Example:

In $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$ the charge on the coordination sphere can be calculated as follows



Since charge on each ligand is $= -1$

Charge on $6CN^-$ $= -6$

Charge on iron $= +2$

So the charge on the coordination sphere $= -6 + 2 = -4$

NOMENCLATURE OF COMPLEX COMPOUNDS

Exercise Q3(ii) (b) Describe the rules for naming the coordination complexes with examples

Complex compounds are named according to following rules give by IUPAC

(1) Order of Ions.

Cations are named first and then the anions.

Examples:

In $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$, we will call K^+ first and then $[Fe(CN)_6]^{-4}$

In $[Cu(NH_3)_4]SO_4$, we will call $[Cu(NH_3)_4]^{+2}$ first and then SO_4^{-2}

(2) Naming of ligands:

(i) The ligands which are negatively charged end in O e.g.

Ligand	Name	Ligand	Name
F^-	Fluoro	CN^-	Cyano
Cl^-	Chloro	CH_3COO^-	Acetato
Br^-	Bromo	$C_2O_4^{-2}$	Oxalato
I^-	Iodo		

(ii) Neutral ligands are called as such e.g.

Ligand	Name	Ligand	Name
H_2O	Aquo or Aqua	CO	Carbonyl
NH_3	Ammine	NO	Nitrosyl

d and f-Block Elements: Transition Elements

(iii) Positively charged ligands end in 'ium' e.g.

Ligand	Abbreviation	Ligand	Abbreviation
NH_2NH_2^+	Hydrazinium	NH_4^+	
NO^+	Nitrosyl		

Order of ligands

All ligands are arranged alphabetically, but the following are not considered:

More than one same type of ligands

The prefixes di for two, tri for three, tetra for four, etc. are used for more than one ligands.

Termination of name of metal

If the complex ion is negatively charged, the name of the metal ends in 'ate'.
e.g. In $\text{K}_4[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$, the name is potassium hexacyanoferrate(II).

Oxidation number of metal ion

The oxidation number of the metal is indicated in parentheses after the name of the metal.

More than one polydentate ligands

The number of polydentate ligands is indicated by bis for two, tris for three, etc.

Examples

(a) In the following complexes, the complex ion has negative charge. So, the name of the metal ends in 'ate'.

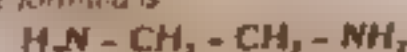
- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| (1) $\text{K}_4[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$ | Potassium hexacyanoferrate (II) |
| (2) $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$ | Potassium hexacyanoferrate (III) |
| (3) $\text{Na}[\text{Mn}(\text{CO})_5]$ | Sodium pentacarbonylmanganate (I) |
| (4) $\text{K}_2[\text{PtCl}_6]$ | Potassium hexachloroplatinate (IV) |
| (5) $\text{Na}_2[\text{Ni}(\text{CN})_4]$ | Sodium tetracyanonickelate |
| (6) $\text{Na}_2[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_5\text{NO}]$ | Sodium pentacyanonitrosylferrate(III) |
| (7) $(\text{NH}_4)_2[\text{PtCl}_6]$ | Ammonium hexachloroplatinate(IV) |
| (8) $\text{K}_2[\text{Cu}(\text{CN})_4]$ | Potassium tetracyanocuprate(II) |
| (9) $[\text{Co}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$ | Hexaquo cobalt(II) ion |
| (10) $[\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$ | Hexaquo iron(II) ion |
| (11) $\text{Na}_2[\text{CoF}_6]$ | Sodium hexafluorocobaltate(III) |

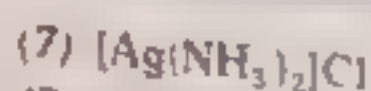
(b) In the following complexes the complex ion has positive charge. So the name of the metal is called as such:

- | | |
|--|---|
| (1) $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6]\text{Cl}_2$ | Hexaamminecobalt (III) chloride |
| (2) $[\text{Co}(\text{F})_6]\text{Cl}_2$ | Hexafluorocobalt (III) chloride |
| (3) $[\text{Cr}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]\text{Cl}_3$ | Hexaquo chromium (III) chloride |
| (4) $[\text{Co}(\text{en})_2]\text{Cl}_2$ | Dichlorobis(ethylenediamine)cobalt (III) chloride |
| (5) $[\text{PtCl}_2(\text{NO}_2)(\text{NH}_3)_2]\text{SO}_4$ | Tetraamminechloronitroplatinum (IV) sulphate |

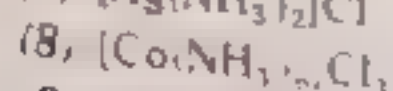
"en" is the abbreviation of "ethylenediamine".

The formula is

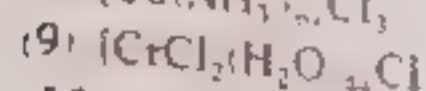




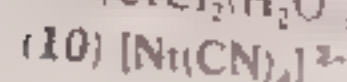
Diamminesilver(I) chloride



Hexaamminecobalt(III) chloride



Tetraaquadichlorochromium(III) chloride



Tetracyanonicklate(II) ion

(c) The following complexes are neutral. Therefore, they have ONE WORD name



Tetracarbonylnickel(0)



Triamminetrinitrocobalt(III)



Pentacarbonyliron(0)

SHAPES OF COMPLEX IONS WITH COORDINATION NUMBER 2, 4 AND 6

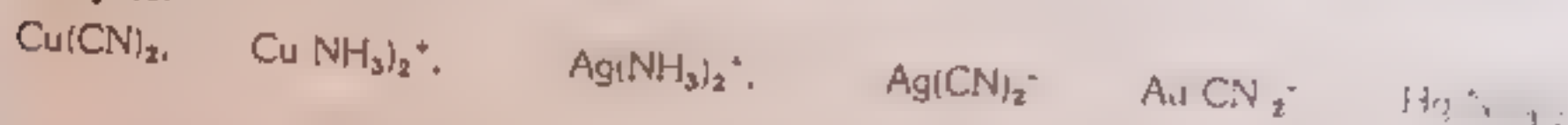
Exercise Q3(III) (a) Explain shapes and origin of colors of coordination compounds

- The coordination number shown by metals in complexes are 2 to 9
- The most common are 2, 3 and 6.
- Geometries corresponding to C.N.'s = 2, 3, 4 and 5 are shown in Fig. 14.3

(1) Coordination Number 2

The complexes having C.N. = 2 are linear, since this geometry provides minimum ligand-ligand repulsion. Cu^+ , Ag^+ and in some cases Hg^{2+} form such complexes.

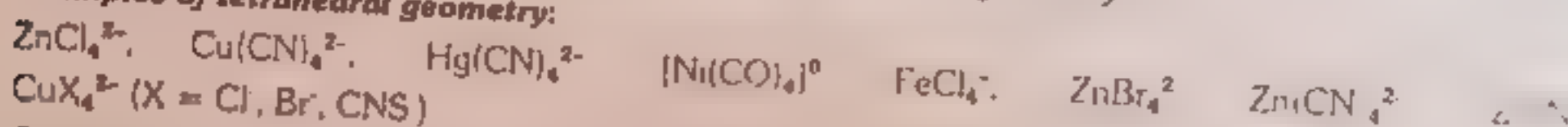
Examples:



(2) Coordination Number 4

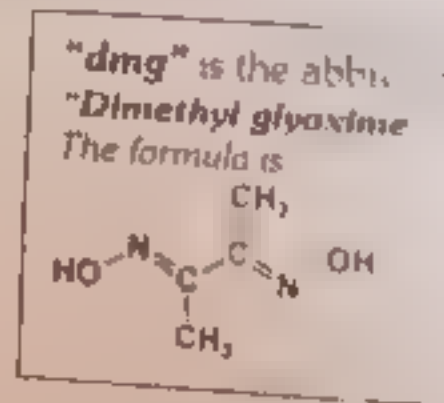
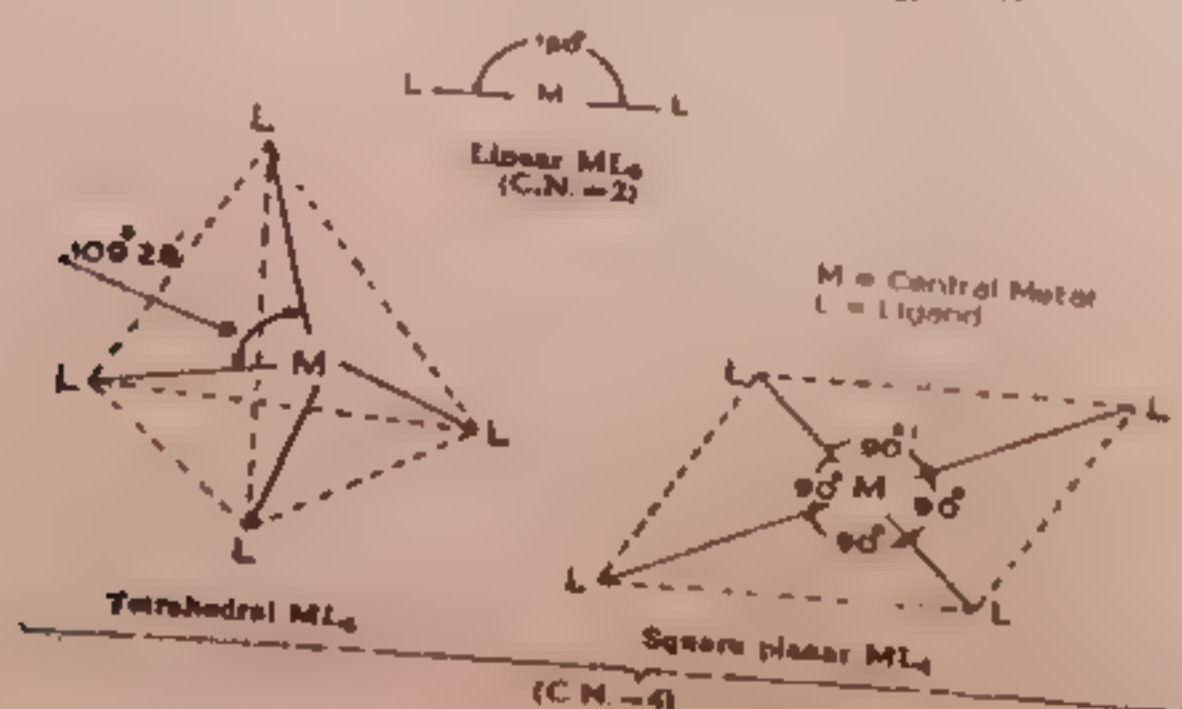
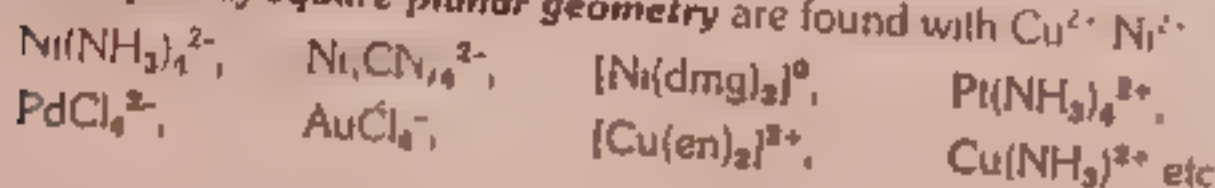
Complexes with C.N. = 4 may be tetrahedral or square planar in geometry

Examples of tetrahedral geometry:



Oxanions such as VO_4^{3-} , CrO_4^{2-} , FeO_4^{2-} and MnO_4^- are also tetrahedral

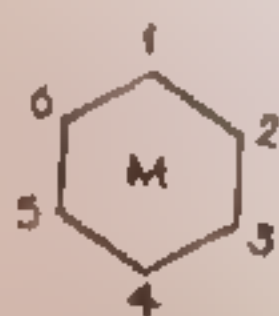
Examples of square planar geometry are found with Cu^{2+} , Ni^{2+} , Pt^{2+} , Pd^{2+} , Au^+ etc ions



Coordination Number 6

Complexes with $C.N. = 6$ are the most common complexes of transition elements.

- Six ligands in a 6-coordinate compound are arranged around the central metal ion, M, in following ways:
 - ✓ at the corners of hexagonal plane.
 - ✓ at the apices of a trigonal prism.
 - ✓ at the apices of a regular octahedron.
- These arrangements are shown in the fig.
- An extensive study of the geometrical aspects of complexes of various transition elements has shown that the arrangement of six ligands in a 6-coordinate complex is always octahedral.
- The discussions of other possible geometries are of historical interest only.



Hexagonal planar geometry

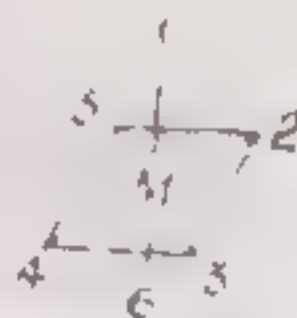


Trigonal prismatic geometry



Regular octahedral geometry

OR



COLOR OF COMPLEXES

- When white light is allowed to fall on a complex. The following may happen:
 - The complex may absorb the whole of white light. In this case, the complex is black.
 - The complex may reflect or transmit the whole light. In this case, the complex is colorless.
 - The complex may absorb some of it and may reflect or transmit the rest. In this case, the complex has some color, i.e. it is colored.
- The absorption of light by the colored complexes takes place in the visible region, which extends from 4000\AA to 7000\AA in wavelengths.
- The color of the absorbed light is different from that of the transmitted light. The color of the absorbed and reflected light is shown in fig below.
- The color of the transmitted light is called the complementary color of the absorbed light. The actual color of the complex.

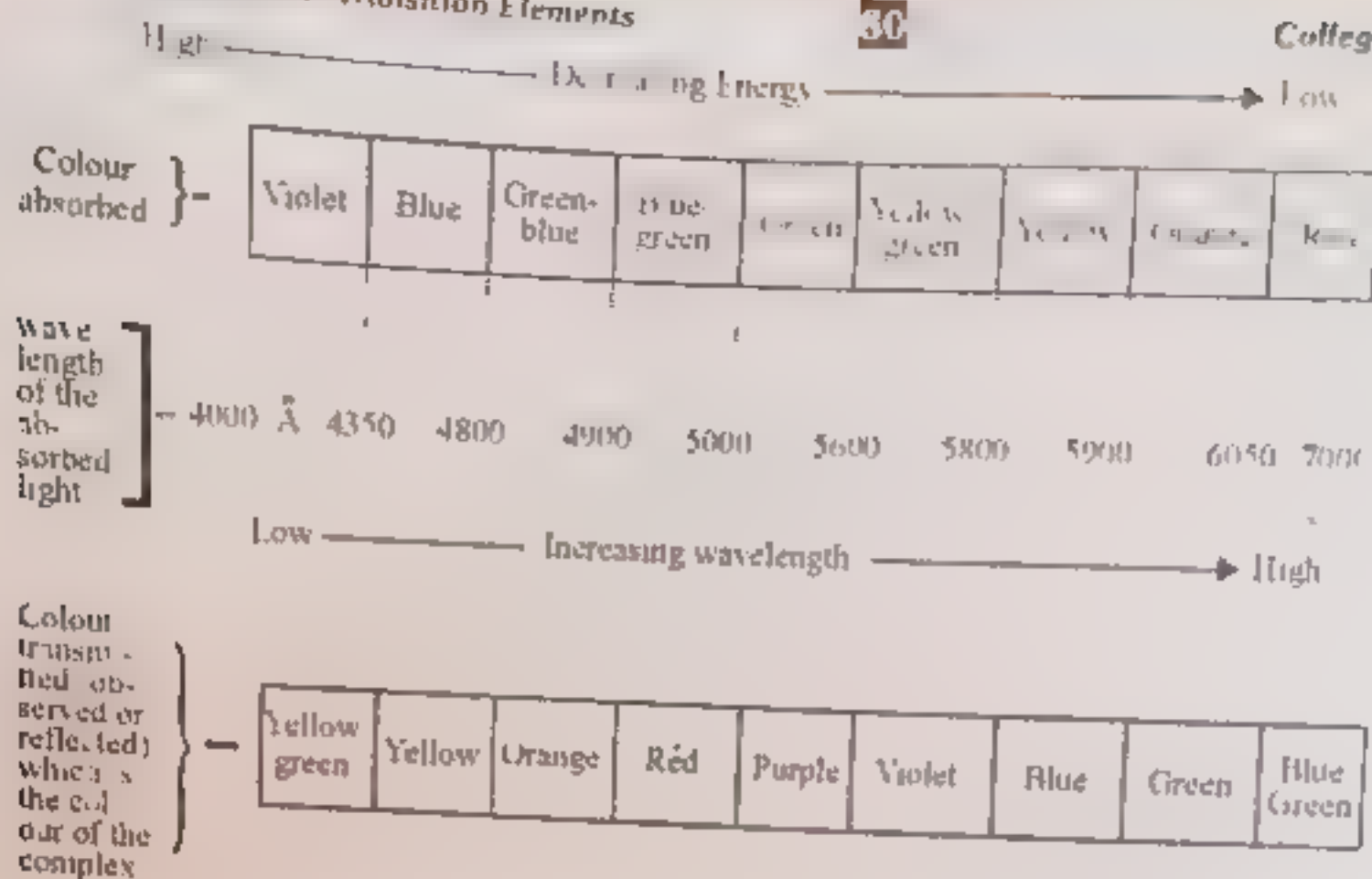
Thus

- Hydrated cupric sulphate containing $[\text{Cu}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+} \text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ions is blue because it absorbs orange light.
- Cupric ammonium sulphate containing $[\text{Cu}(\text{NH}_3)_6]^{2+}$ ions is violet because it absorbs yellow light.
- $[\text{Ti}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{3+}$ is purple because it absorbs green light.

The complex ions which absorb light in the infrared or ultraviolet regions of the spectrum are colorless.

Examples:

- anhydrous cupric sulphate is colorless since it absorbs light in the infrared region.
- $[\text{Cu}(\text{CN})_4]^{4-}$ ion is colorless since it absorbs light in the ultraviolet region.



Application of absorption spectrum to determine the colour of the complex

With the help of visible absorption spectrum of a complex, it is possible to predict the color of the complex.

Example:

$(\text{Ti}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6)^{3+}$ ion shows absorption maxima at a wavelength of about 5000 Å which is equal to the wave number $\bar{\nu} = 20000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$.

It can be calculated as

$$\text{Wavelength} = \lambda = 5000 \text{ Å} = 5000 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm} \quad (\text{Since } 1 \text{ Å} = 10^{-10} \text{ m} = 10^{-8} \text{ cm})$$

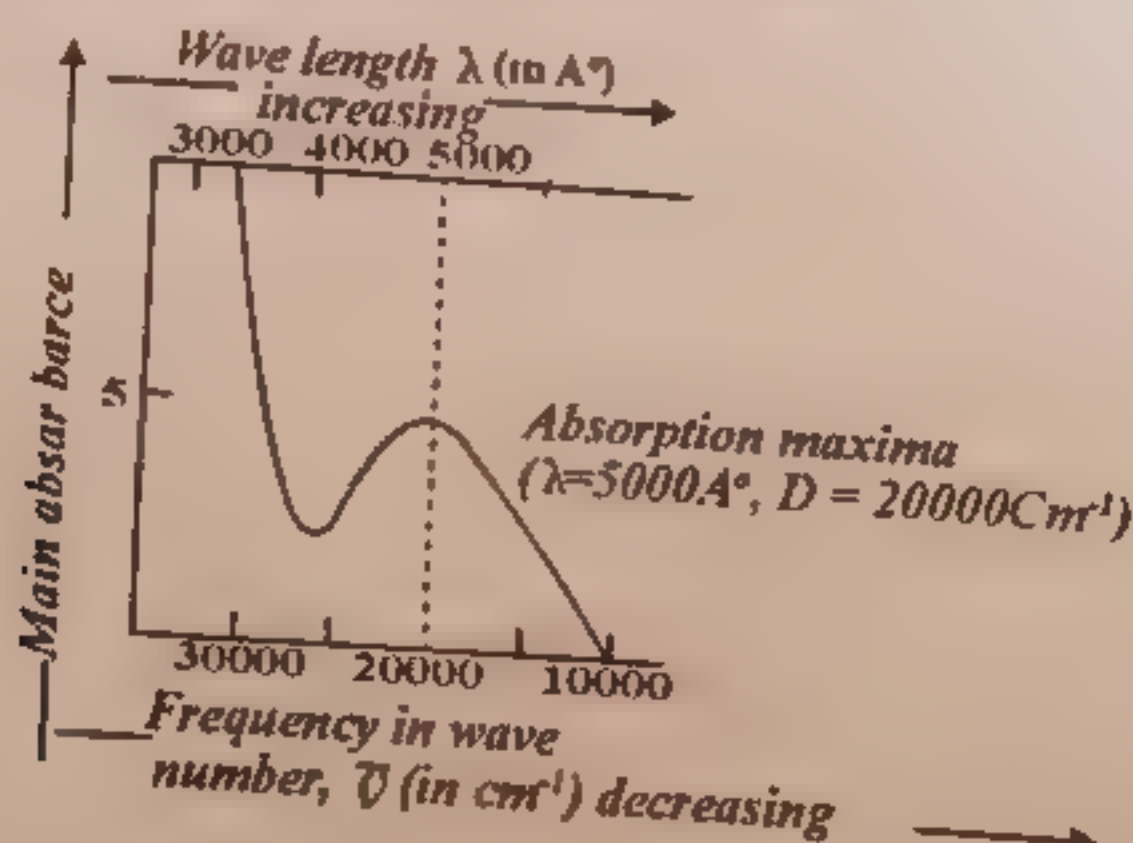
Thus

$$\bar{\nu} = \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{5000 \times 10^{-8}}$$

$$= 0.2 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-1} = 20000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

Light of this wave length (5000 Å) is green and is absorbed by the complex ion.

Thus the transmitted light is purple, which is in fact, the color of the ions.



QUICK QUIZ-3

Why do most of the transition metal ions possess a definite colour?

The absorption of light in the visible region (400-700 nm) by the transition metal ions causes the colour.

Molecular Level Explanation

Transition metal ions have partially filled d-orbitals.

When light falls on a complex of a transition metal ion, the electrons in the d-orbitals are excited to a higher energy level.

The electron is excited to a higher energy level.

The complementary colour is observed.

e.g. $[\text{Ti}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{3+}$ is colourless.

2. What is wavelength of green colour?

It is in the range of 500-550 nm.

3. When complex compound appear black

The complex may absorb all the visible light.

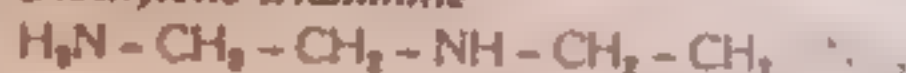
4. What will be geometry of complex compound having coordination number 6?

See Page 78

5. Give examples of hexadentate and tridentate ligand

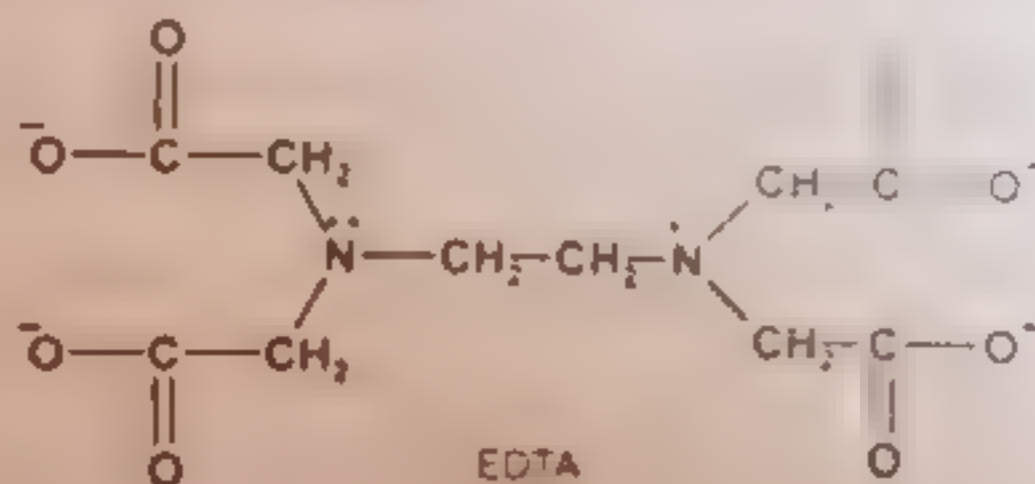
Those ligands which have three donatable electron pairs are called tridentate ligands.

Example: Diethylene triamine



Those ligands which have six donatable electron pairs are called hexadentate ligands.

Example: Ethylenediaminetetraacetate (EDTA)



CHEMISTRY OF SOME IMPORTANT TRANSITION ELEMENTS

VANADIUM

Vanadium is important because of

- (i) The conversion between various Vanadium Oxidation states and
- (ii) The use of Vanadium (V) oxide as a catalyst in the contact process

VANADIUM'S OXIDATION STATES


Vanadium has oxidation states in its compounds of +5, +4, +3 and +2. These can be inter converted. It can be explained in terms of standard redox potentials (standard electrode potentials).

OBSERVING THE CHANGES IN THE LAB

REDUCING VANADIUM (V) IN STAGES TO VANADIUM (II)

- The usual source of vanadium in the +5 oxidation state is ammonium metavanadate.
- It is not very soluble in water. Therefore, it is usually first dissolved in sodium hydroxide.
- The solution can be reduced using zinc and an acid (HCl or H_2SO_4).
- The acids used are usually moderately concentrated acid.
- The exact vanadium ion present in the solution is very complicated, and varies with the pH of the solution.
- The reaction is done under acidic conditions when the main ion present is VO_2^+ . It is called the dioxovanadium(V) ion.
- The reduction from +5 to +4 is shown in the figure.


Note: The ion is usually written as VO_2^+ but is more accurately $[\text{VO}_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})_4]^+$.



Oxidation state = +5


VO_2^+

Yellow



This isn't a new oxidation state. The green is a mixture of the original yellow and the blue that is being produced.

Green



Oxidation state = +4

VO^{2+}


Blue

It is important to notice that the green colour produced is not actually another oxidation state. It is just a mixture of the original yellow of the +5 state and the blue of the +4.

Do you know?

Just like the VO_2^+ ion, the VO^{2+} ion will have water molecules attached to it as well $[\text{VO}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_5]^{2+}$. We usually use the simpler form.


- The reduction of V(IV) further continues and the colour changes also continue.



Oxidation state = +4

VO^{2+}


Blue



Oxidation state = +3

$\text{V}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6^{3+}$

Green



Oxidation state = +2

$\text{V}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6^{2+}$

Purple

- The vanadium (III) ion is shown in inverted commas. It is because this formula is a simplification only. The exact nature of the complex ion will depend on the type of acid used in the reduction process.

OXIDATION OF THE VANADIUM (II)

- The vanadium (II) ion is very easily oxidized to vanadium (III).
 - If cotton wool is removed from the flask and is exposed to the air, it is oxidized by its contact with oxygen in the air. Thus it is not stable in air.
 - If it is allowed to stand for a long time the vanadium (II) ion is oxidized to the vanadium (IV) state i.e., VO^{2+} ions.
 - Nitric acid is a powerful oxidizing agent. It is used to oxidize vanadium (II) to blue VO^{2+} ions. Thus vanadium (II) is a good reducing agent.
- The vanadium(II) oxidation state is easily oxidized to vanadium(III).

OXIDATION BY HYDROGEN IONS

- The original reduction was carried out using cotton wool to keep the air out because a slow reaction was observed.
- The hydrogen ions present in the solution can be reduced to hydrogen gas.
- The vanadium (II) solution is only stable as long as it is kept in a reducing atmosphere. The zinc is necessary to keep the vanadium reduced.

Oxidation of Vanadium (II) to Vanadium (III)

Let H^+ ions are present and zinc is not there. The reduction potentials are



Since,

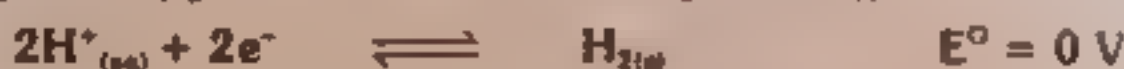
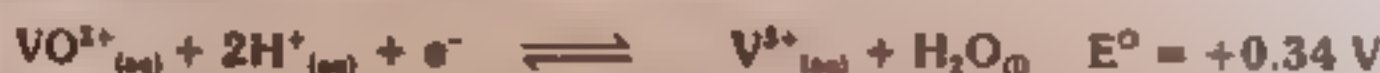
- The reaction with the more negative E° value goes to the left (oxidation).
- The reaction with the more positive value (or less negative value) goes to the right (reduction).

Therefore,

- The vanadium (II) ions will be oxidized to vanadium (III) ions (i.e. the reaction goes to the left).
- The hydrogen ions will be reduced to hydrogen (i.e., the reaction goes to the right).

Oxidation of Vanadium (III) to Vanadium (IV)

The E° values are

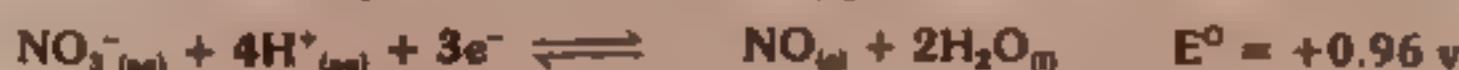


- In order for the vanadium equilibrium to move to the left, it should have the more negative E° value than hydrogen.
- However, it has not got the more negative E° value than hydrogen. Hence the reaction will not occur.

OXIDATION BY NITRIC ACID

Oxidation of Vanadium (II) to Vanadium (III)

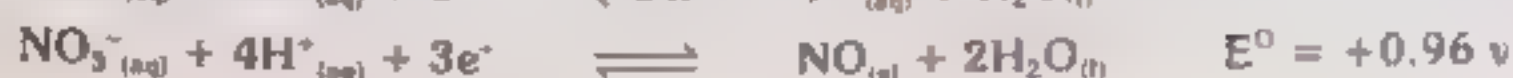
Consider the reduction potentials



- The vanadium reaction has the more negative E° value and so will move to the left.
- The nitric acid reaction moves to the right.
- Hence, nitric acid will oxidize vanadium (II) to vanadium (III).

Oxidation of Vanadium (III) to Vanadium (IV)

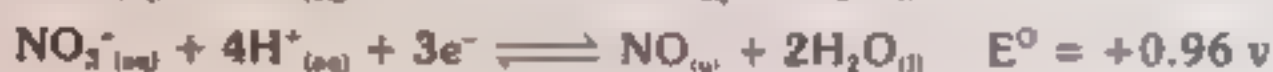
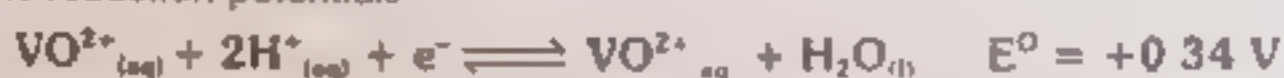
Consider the reduction potentials



- The nitric acid again has the more positive E° value and so more likely to be right
- The more negative (less positive) vanadium reaction moves to the left
- Hence, nitric acid will oxidize vanadium (III) to vanadium (IV)

Oxidation of Vanadium (IV) to Vanadium (V)

Consider the reduction potentials



- If the vanadium reaction to move to the left towards dioxovanadium $\text{VO}^{3+}_{(\text{aq})}$, should have the more negative (less positive) E° value.
- However, it has not got a less positive value for more negative value. Thus the reaction will not occur.

Other oxidizing agents can be analyzed in a similar way

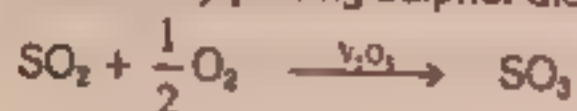
Conclusions:

- If E° values show that a reaction is possible, then it should not be assumed that it will necessarily occur
- Practically the reaction can be too slow due to high activation energy. Therefore it may not actually happen

Exercise Q3(v) (a) Discuss vanadium (V) oxide as a catalyst with example.**Quick Quiz-4 (4). How V_2O_5 use as catalyst for oxidation of $\text{SO}_2 (\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{SO}_3 (\text{g})$** **VANADIUM (V) OXIDE AS A CATALYST IN THE CONTACT PROCESS****The overall reaction**

During the Contact Process for manufacturing sulphuric acid, sulphur dioxide has to be converted into Sulphur trioxide

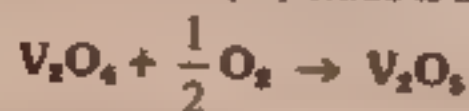
This is done by passing Sulphur dioxide and oxygen over a solid vanadium (V) oxide catalyst

**How the reaction works**

- The transition metals and their compounds have ability to act as catalysts because of the ability to change their oxidation state (oxidation number)
- The Sulphur dioxide is oxidized to Sulphur trioxide by the vanadium (V) oxide
- In the process, the vanadium (V) oxide is reduced to vanadium (IV) oxide



- The vanadium (IV) oxide is then re-oxidized by the oxygen.



- Although the catalyst has been temporarily changed during the reaction, at the end it is chemically the same as it started

QUICK QUIZ-4

1. Name the source of vanadium in +5 oxidation state

2. How is the solution of V_2O_5 in +5 oxidation state prepared in metavanadate, NH_4VO_3

3. How solution of NH_4VO_3 is prepared

4. Why V_2O_5 is not a strong oxidizing agent. Therefore it is usually first dissolved in sodium hydroxide solution

5. How re-oxidation of lower oxidation state of vanadium is prevented

6. The oxidation of lower oxidation state can be easily re-oxidized by atmospheric oxygen. It can be prevented by

7. The re-oxidation of lower oxidation state can be easily re-oxidized by atmospheric oxygen. It can be prevented by

8. The re-oxidation of lower oxidation state can be easily re-oxidized by atmospheric oxygen. It can be prevented by

9. How V_2O_5 use as catalyst for oxidation of SO_2 (g) \rightarrow SO_3 (g)

See Page 84

CHROMIUM

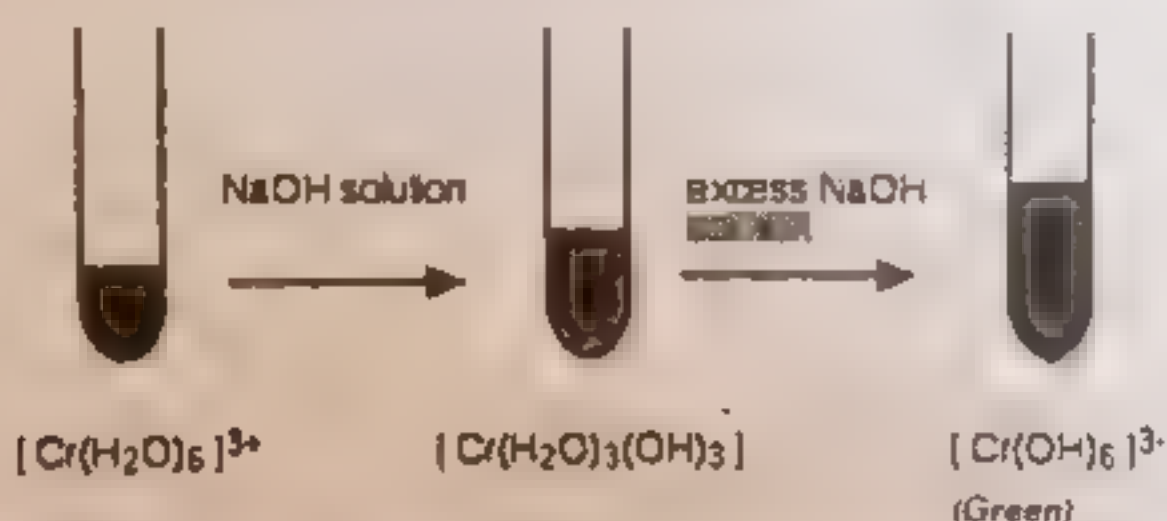
Important discussion is,

- The interconversion of the various oxidation states of chromium
- The chromate (VI)-dichromate (VI) equilibrium
- The use of dichromate (VI) ions as an oxidizing agent (including titrations)

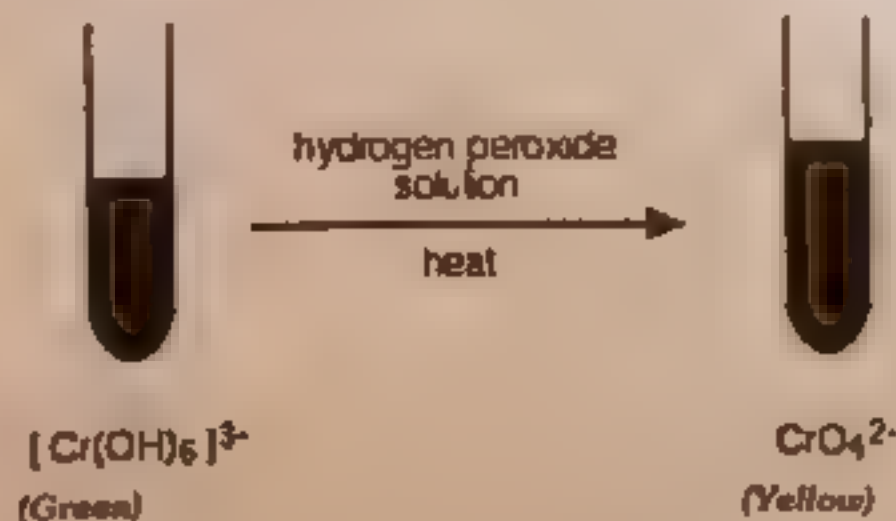
Exercise Q3(v) (b) How does chromium (III) changes to chromium (VI)?

THE OXIDATION OF CHROMIUM(III) TO CHROMIUM(VI)

- An excess of sodium hydroxide solution is added to a solution of the hexaaquachromium(III) ions to produce a solution of green hexahydroxochromate(III) ions.



- This is then oxidized by warming it with hydrogen peroxide solution. Finally a bright yellow solution containing chromate(VI) ions is obtained.



The equation for the oxidation stage is:



SOME CHROMIUM(VI) CHEMISTRY

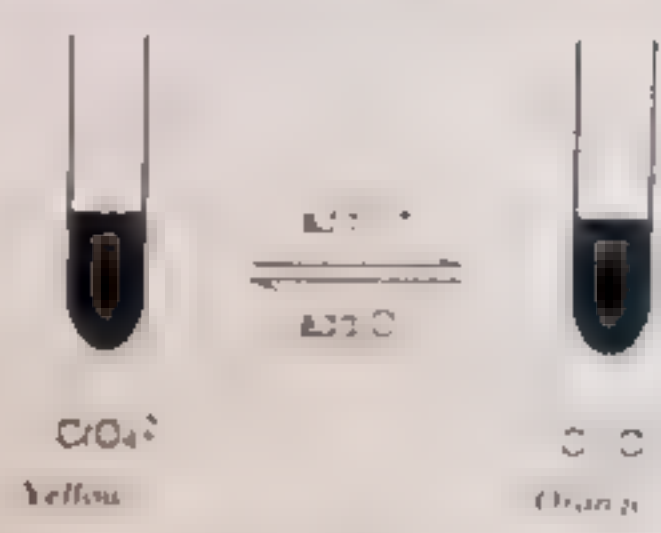
THE CHROMATE(VI)-DICHROMATE(VI) EQUILIBRIUM

The colour of the solution is

- orange in acidic solution
- yellow in basic solution

These two can be interconverted as follows

- If dilute solution of sodium chromate is acidified
- If solid sodium chromate is heated



The most Important Precaution

- Let the yellow chromate(VI) ions are just produced by heating sodium chromate. They cannot be converted into dichromate(VI) ions with the addition of acid.
- In the presence of acid, dichromate(VI) ions react with H_2O_2 (hydrogen peroxide) to form the original reaction!
- To prevent this, the solution is heated for some time to decompose H_2O_2 into water and oxygen before adding the acid

Explanation of the Chromate-Dichromate equilibrium

- The equilibrium reaction of the interconversion is

$$2\text{CrO}_4^{2-} + 2\text{H}^+ \rightleftharpoons \text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$$
- If extra hydrogen ions are added to this then according to Le Chatelier's principle the equilibrium shifts to the right

Adding hydrogen ions forces the position of equilibrium to the right



- If hydroxide ions are added, these react with the hydrogen ions. Thus, according to Le-Chatlier's principle the equilibrium shifts to the left to replace them

Adding hydroxide ions removes these hydrogen ions



The equilibrium moves to the left to replace hydrogen ions.

REDUCTION OF DICHROMATE(VI) IONS WITH ZINC AND AN ACID



Oxidation state = +6



Oxidation state = +3



Oxidation state = 0



- The chromium (III) ion is a green color.
- The equation for the reduction of dichromate(VI) ions with zinc is:

For the reduction from +6 to +3



For the reduction from +3 to +2



Exercise Q3(c) (c) Discuss potassium dichromate (VI) and Potassium manganate (VII) as oxidizing agent in organic chemistry. (For Potassium manganate (VII) see page 92)

USING POTASSIUM DICHROMATE (VI) AS AN OXIDIZING AGENT IN ORGANIC CHEMISTRY

- Potassium dichromate(VI) solution acidified with dilute sulphuric acid is used as an oxidizing agent in organic chemistry.
- It is a reasonably strong oxidizing agent so that it can take the whole of the electron from the substrate. Potassium manganate(VII) solution also has this tendency.
- It is used to:
 - oxidize secondary alcohols to ketones,
 - oxidize primary alcohols to aldehydes,
 - oxidize primary alcohols to carboxylic acids

Example:

Ethanol (a primary alcohol), is oxidized to ethanal (an aldehyde) or ethanoic acid (a carboxylic acid) on the conditions as given below.

- Case-I: If the alcohol is in excess, the aldehyde is distilled off as soon as it is formed. Thus, ethanal is the main product.



e.g.



e.g. The reaction



USING POTASSIUM DICHROMATE(VI) AS AN OXIDIZING AGENT IN TITRATIONS

- Potassium dichromate(VI) is a strong oxidizing agent.
- It is used in titrations to determine the concentration of reducing agents.

In practice

There are advantages and disadvantages.

Advantages

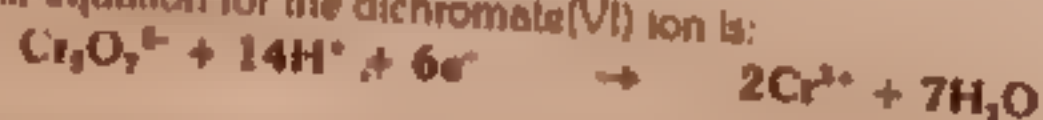
- Potassium dichromate(VI) is a strong oxidizing agent with a known concentration (usually 0.02 mol dm⁻³).
- Potassium dichromate(VI) can be used in titrations with chloride ions. It is possible if chloride ions are not present in very high concentration.
- Potassium manganate(VII) oxidizes chloride ions to chlorine. However, potassium dichromate(VI) is not so strong to do this. It means there are no unwanted side reactions with the potassium dichromate(VI) solution.

Disadvantages

- The main disadvantage lies in the colour change.
- Potassium manganate(VII) titrations are self-indicating. Potassium manganate(VII) solution is purple in colour. When it is run into the given solution, the solution becomes colourless. However, when just one drop is added in excess, the solution becomes pink. Thus, it can be detected easily. This is the end point.
- Potassium dichromate(VI) solution is orange in colour. When it is run into the given solution, the solution turns green. So, when there is one drop of orange solution in excess in a strongly coloured green solution, the colour change cannot be detected. Hence, with these titrations separate indicators are used, known as a redox indicator. Therefore, with potassium dichromate(VI) solution separate indicators are used, known as a redox indicator. These change colour in the presence of an oxidizing agent.
- There are several such indicators, such as diphenylamine sulphonate. This gives a violet-blue colour in the presence of excess potassium dichromate(VI) solution. However, the colour is made difficult by the presence of strong green colour.
- Hence, the end point of a potassium dichromate(VI) titration is not as easy to see as the end point of a potassium manganate(VII) titration.

The Calculation

The half-equation for the dichromate(VI) ion is:

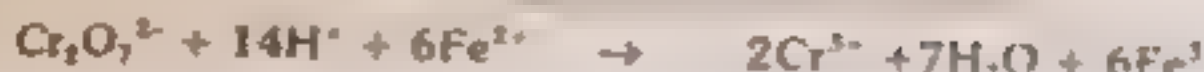


and for the iron(II) ions is



14 d and f-Block Elements, Transition Elements

Combining these two half reactions

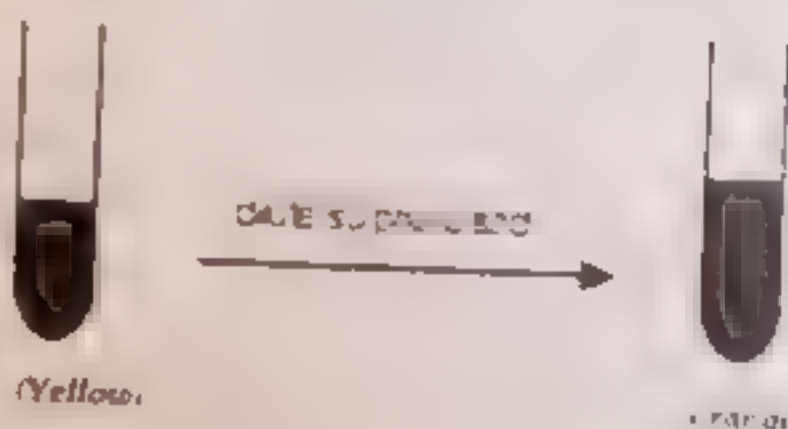


TESTING FOR CHROMATE(VI) IONS IN SOLUTION

- Typically, testing is done in acidic solution.
- Most chromates are yellow.
- The bright yellow colour of chromate(VI) ions.

Testing by adding an acid

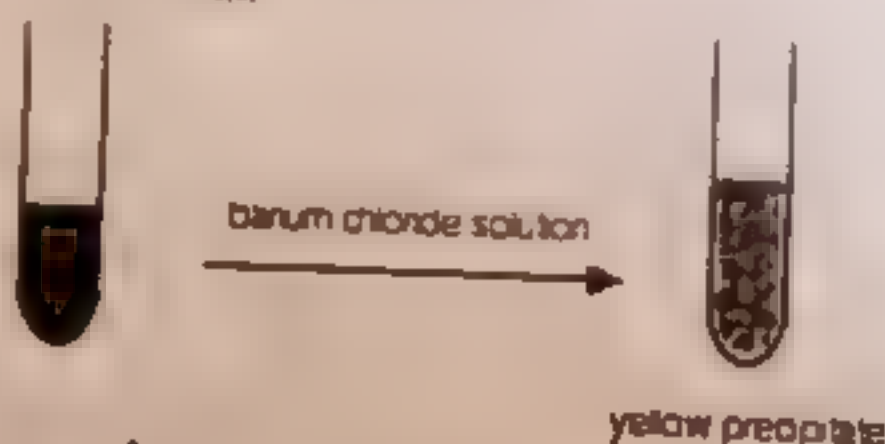
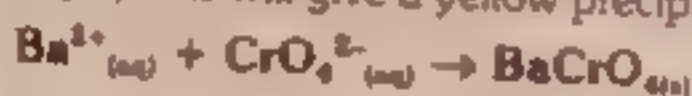
- If some dilute sulphuric acid is added, the orange colour of dichromate(VI) ions appears.



This test cannot be sure for chromate(VI) ions. This colour change can also occur with other ions.

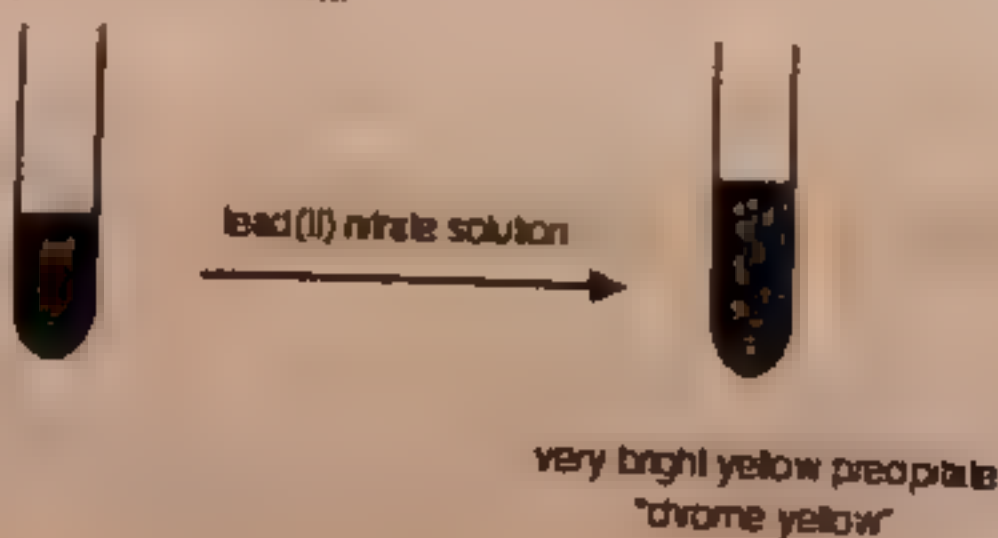
Testing by adding barium chloride (or nitrate) solution

Chromate(VI) ions will give a yellow precipitate of barium chromate.



Testing by adding lead(II) nitrate solution

Chromate(VI) ions will give a bright yellow precipitate of lead(II) chromate(VI).
 PbCrO_4 is the original "chrome yellow" paint pigment.



QUICK QUIZ-5:

(1) How dichromate ion is converted into chromate and vice versa

The equilibrium



Thus

- If $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ ions are added to the solution, the equilibrium shifts to the right.
- If CrO_4^{2-} ions are added to the solution, the equilibrium shifts to the left.

(2) What happens when chromate ion reacts with barium chloride

The CrO_4^{2-} ions react with Ba^{2+} ions to form a white precipitate of barium chromate as a test for Ba^{2+} ions



(3) Why potassium dichromate is preferred over potassium manganate in titration

- Potassium dichromate (VI) can be used as a primary standard. It means that its stable, known concentration can be directly measured.
- Potassium dichromate (VI) can be used in the presence of chloride ions as chloride ions are not present in very high concentration. Thus, no unwanted side reactions occur.

(4) In which titration end point is clear potassium dichromate or potassium manganate

- Potassium dichromate (VI) solution is orange in colour. When it is run into the given solution, the solution turns green. So, when there is one drop of orange solution in excess of a colourless green solution, the colour change cannot be detected. Hence, with these titrations sensitive indicators are used known as a redox indicator.
- Potassium manganate (VII) solution is purple in colour. When it is run into the given solution, the solution becomes colourless. However, when just one drop is added in excess, the solution becomes pink. Thus, it can be detected easily. This is the end point.

(5) What color changes occur when following are added separately in potassium chromate solution

(i) Acid

The equilibrium reaction of the interconversion of CrO_4^{2-} and $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ ions is



Thus, if dilute sulphuric acid is added to the yellow solution of CrO_4^{2-} ions, it is converted into orange solution of $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ ions. It is because, the acid provides H^+ ions, which shift the equilibrium to the right.

(iii) Lead nitrate solution

Chromate (VI) ions will give a bright yellow precipitate of lead (II) chromate (VI)



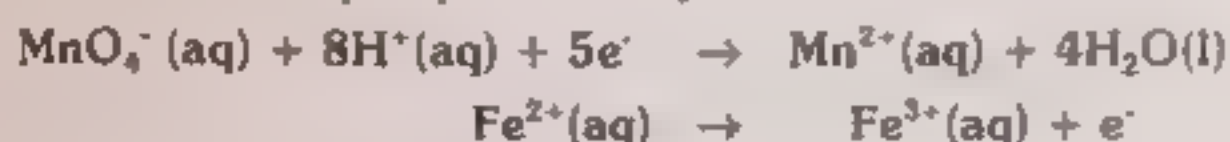
MANGANESE

This section describes

- The Oxidation States
- Two simple reactions of manganese (II) ions in solution
- The use of potassium manganate (VII) (potassium permanganate) as an oxidizing agent - including its use in titrations

OXIDATION STATES

- Manganese can exist in a number of oxidation states. Its most stable oxidation states are +2, +4 or +7.
- In the +7 oxidation state it exists as the intense purple ion MnO_4^- .
- It can be reduced to the pale pink Mn^{2+} by Fe^{2+} in acidic solution



Multiply $\text{Fe}^{2+} \rightarrow \text{Fe}^{3+} + \text{e}^-$ equation by 5 and then add to the other equation to get the overall reaction.

Overall reaction



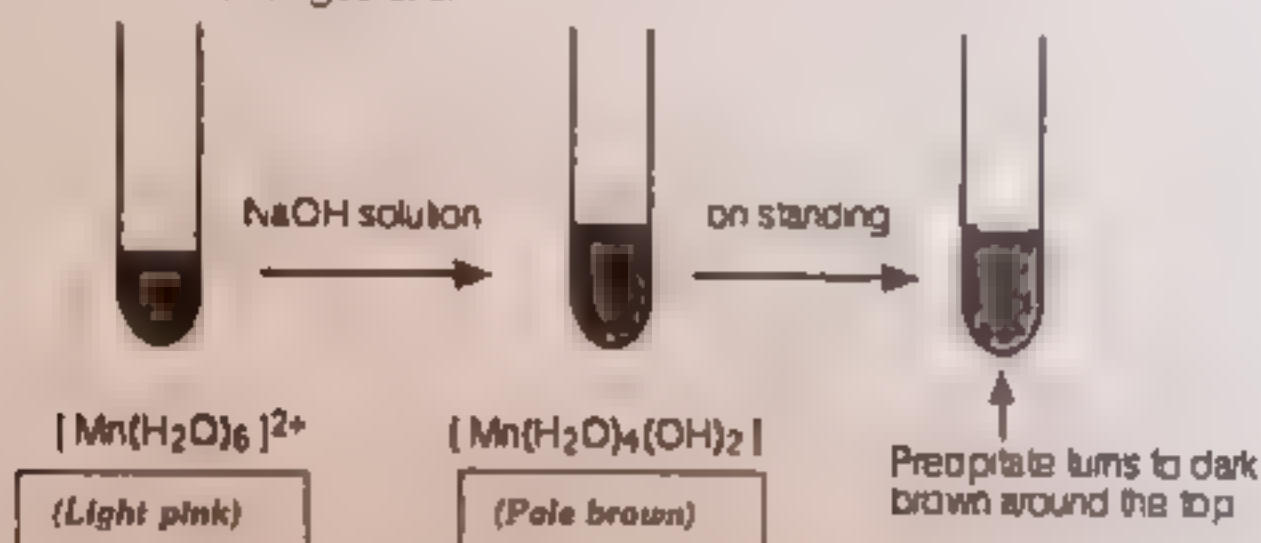
REACTIONS OF MANGANESE (II) IONS IN SOLUTION/ OXIDATION STATES

The reaction of hexaaquamanganese(II) ions with hydroxide ions

- Hydroxide ions (e.g. from sodium hydroxide solution) remove hydrogen ions from the water ligands attached to the manganese ion.
- Once a hydrogen ion has been removed from two of the water molecules, a complex ion with a net charge (a neutral complex). This is insoluble in water and a precipitate is formed



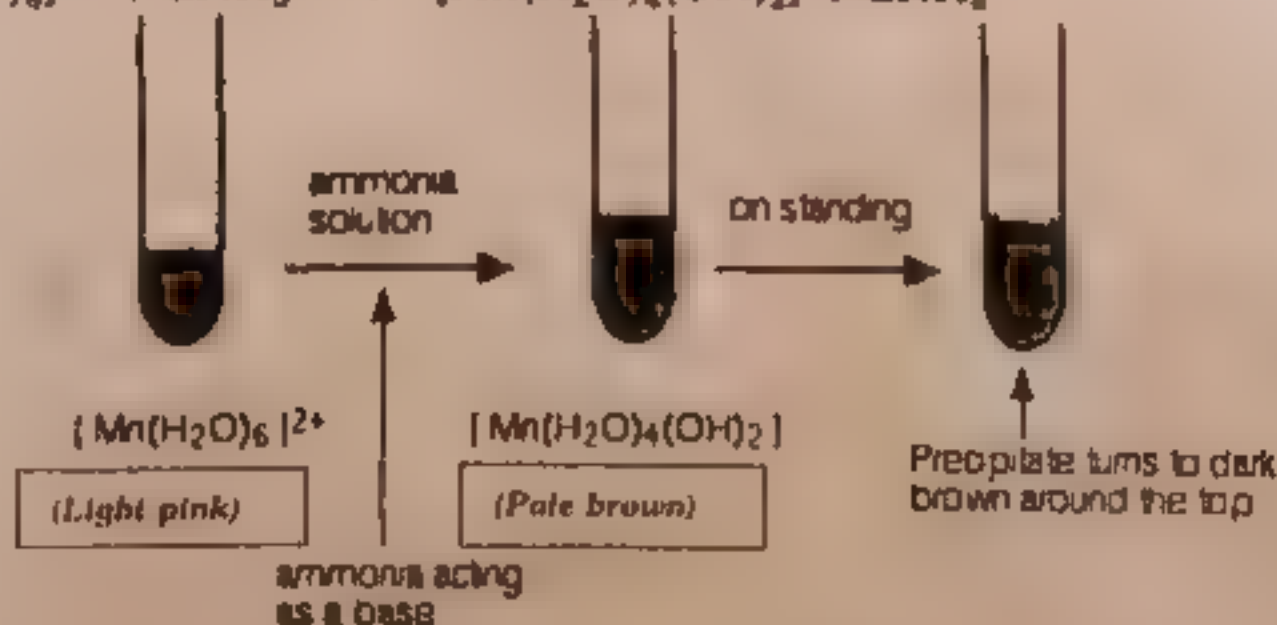
- In the test-tube, the colour changes are.



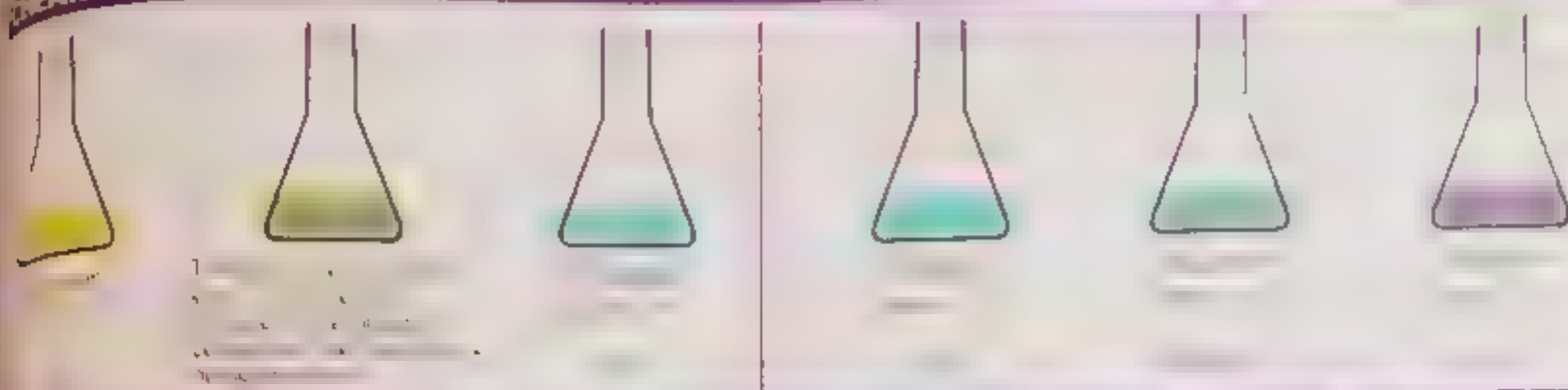
- The original solution is as very light pink as colourless.
- When this reaction occurs, the pale brown precipitate of $[\text{Mn}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_4(\text{OH})_2]$ are formed. These are converted to a darker brown manganese(III) oxide on contact with oxygen from the air

The reaction of hexaaquamanganese(II) ions with ammonia solution

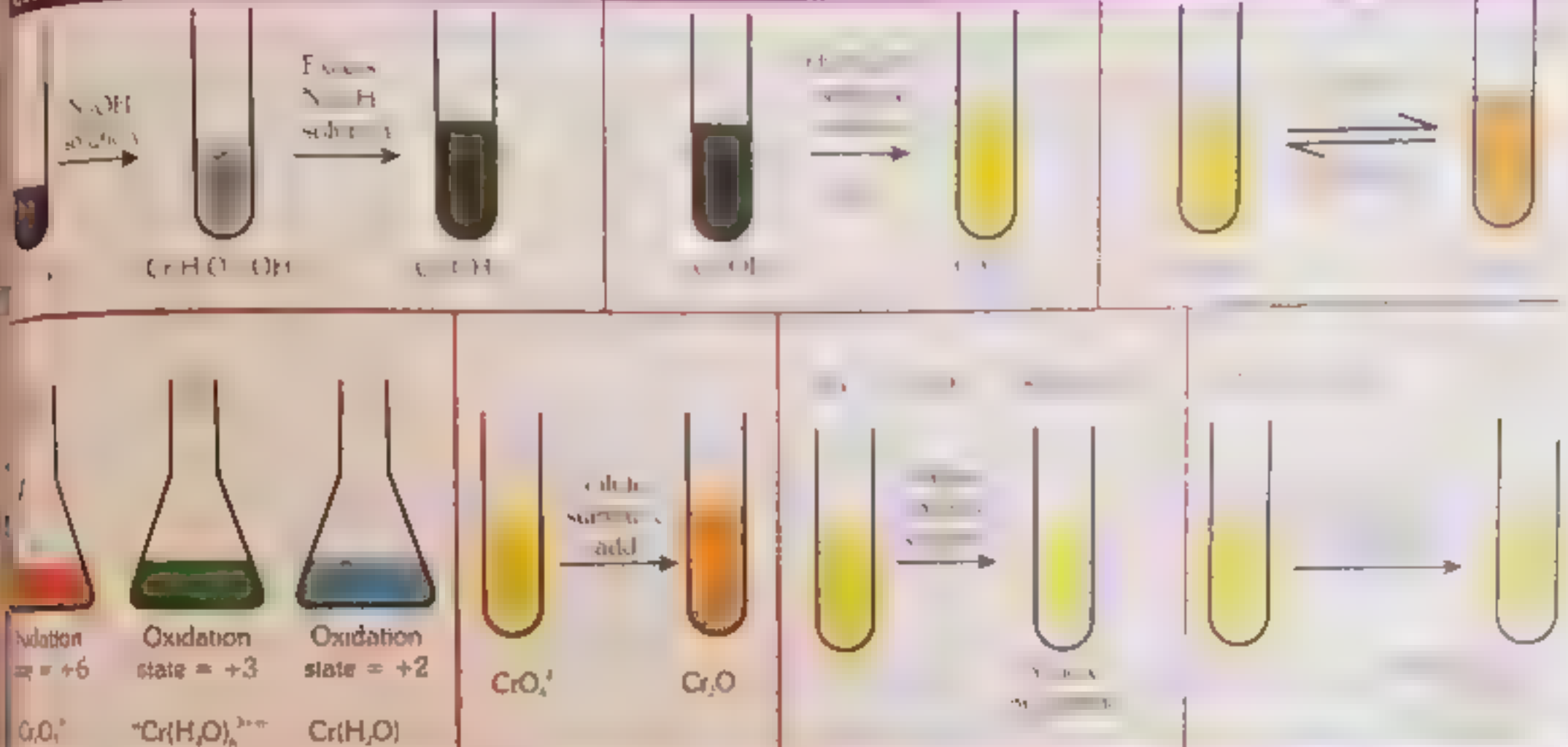
- Ammonia can act as both a base and a ligand.
- In this case, it simply acts as a base at usual concentrations. Thus, it removes hydrogen ions from the aqua complex.



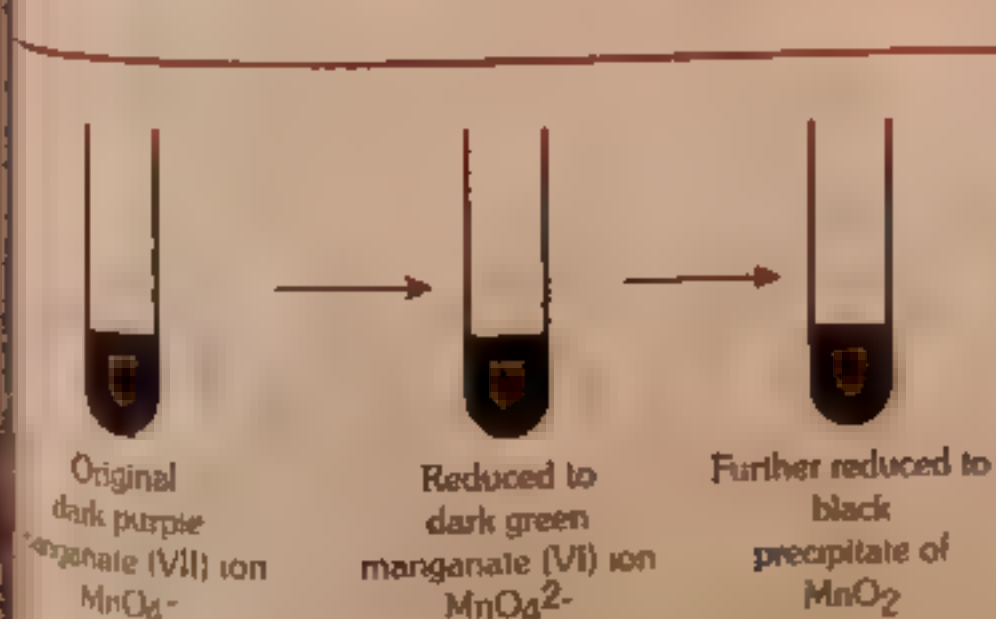
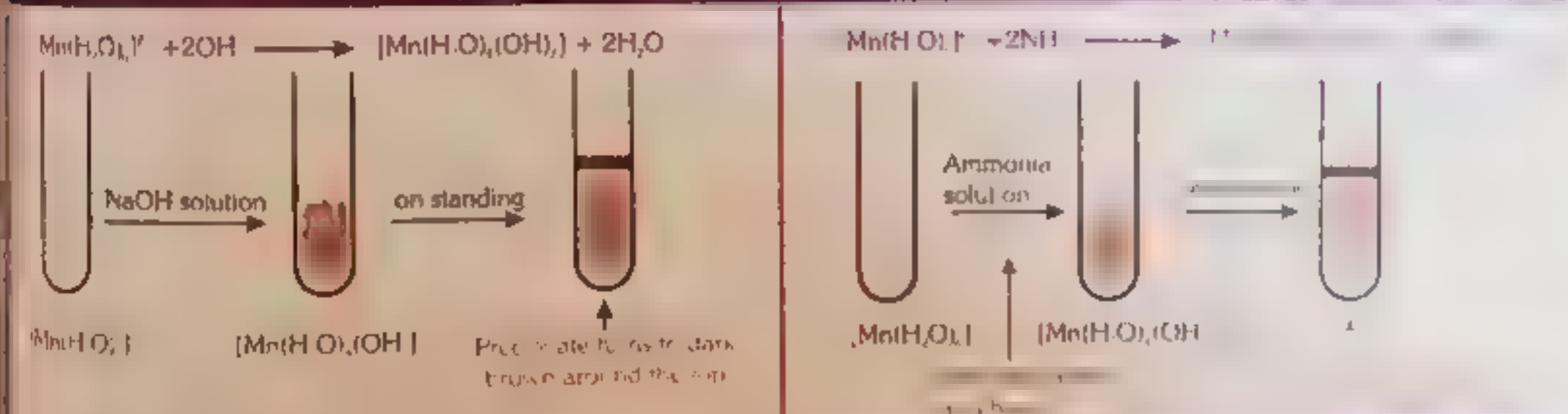
CHEMISTRY OF VANADIUM (V): PAGE 81



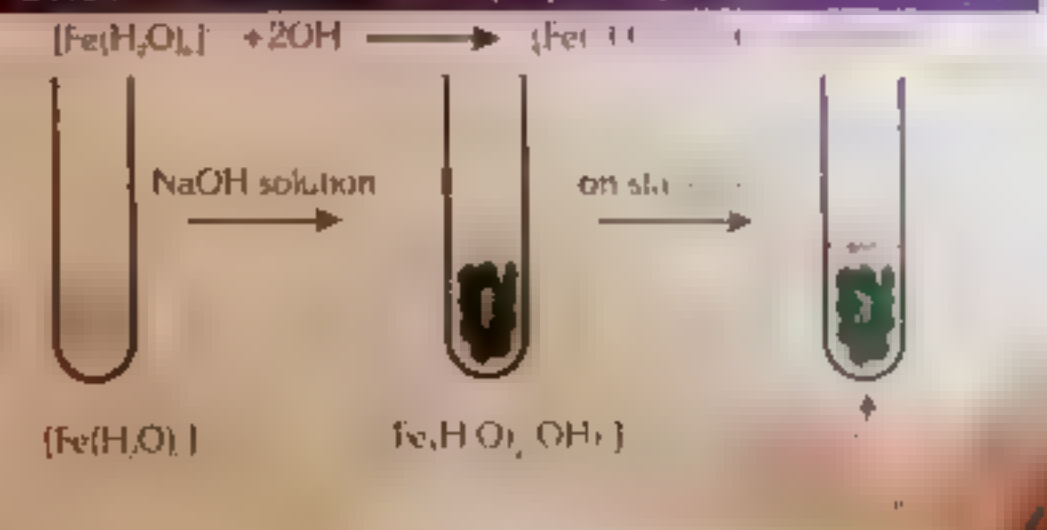
CHEMISTRY OF CHROMIUM (Cr): PAGE 86



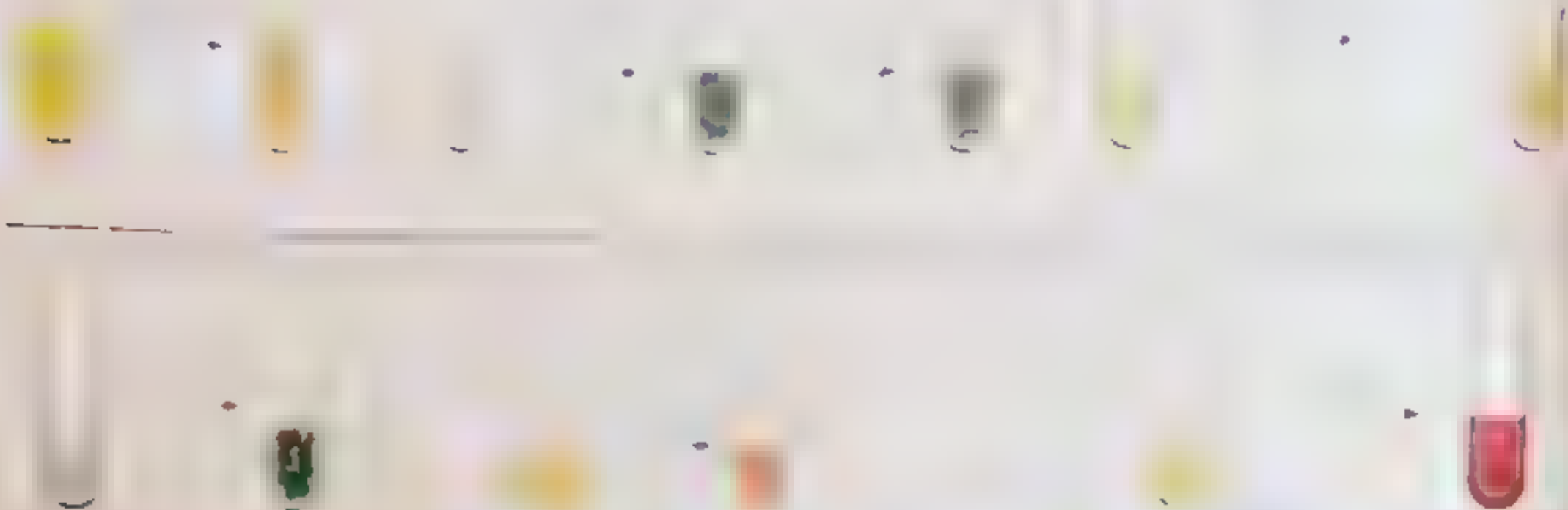
CHEMISTRY OF MANGANESE (Mn): PAGE 90



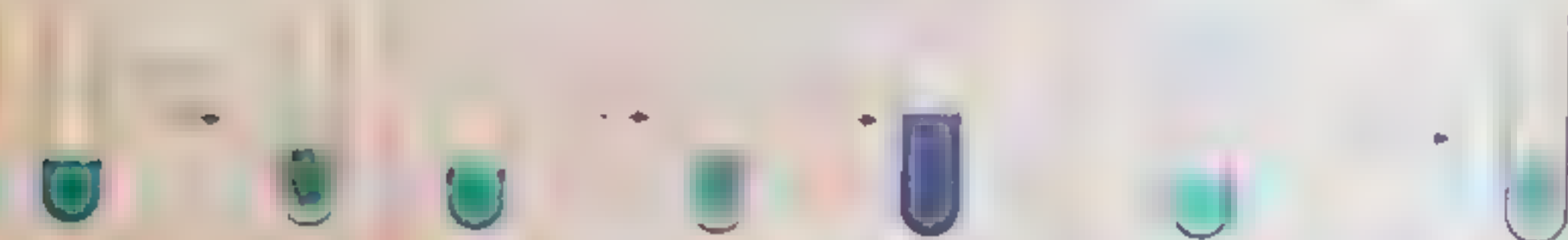
CHEMISTRY OF IRON (Fe): PAGE 95



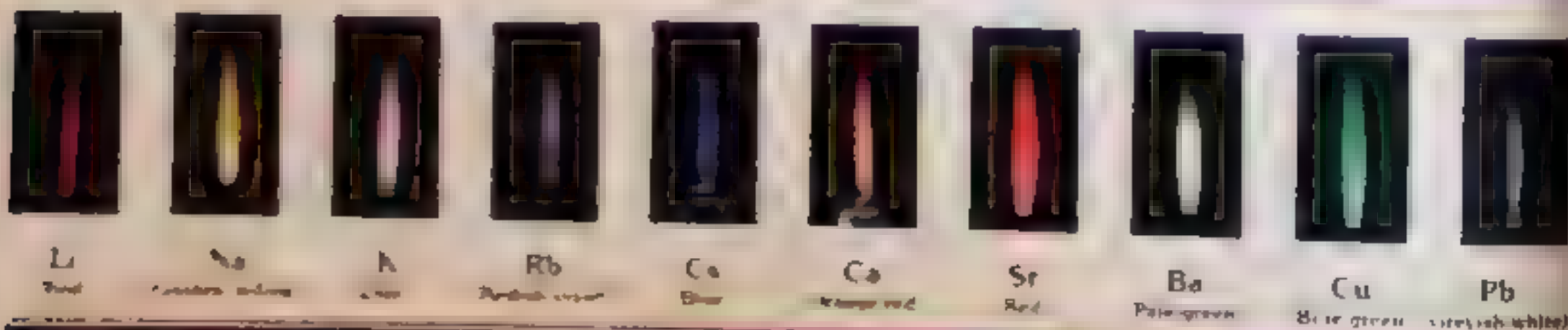
CHARACTERISTICS OF SOME OF THE ELEMENTS



CHARACTERISTICS OF COPPER (PAGE 99)



FLAME COLOURS (PAGE 27)



LASSAIGNE'S TEST (PAGE 120)



Test for Halogens
(White = Cl⁻, Pale yellow = Br⁻, Yellow = I⁻)

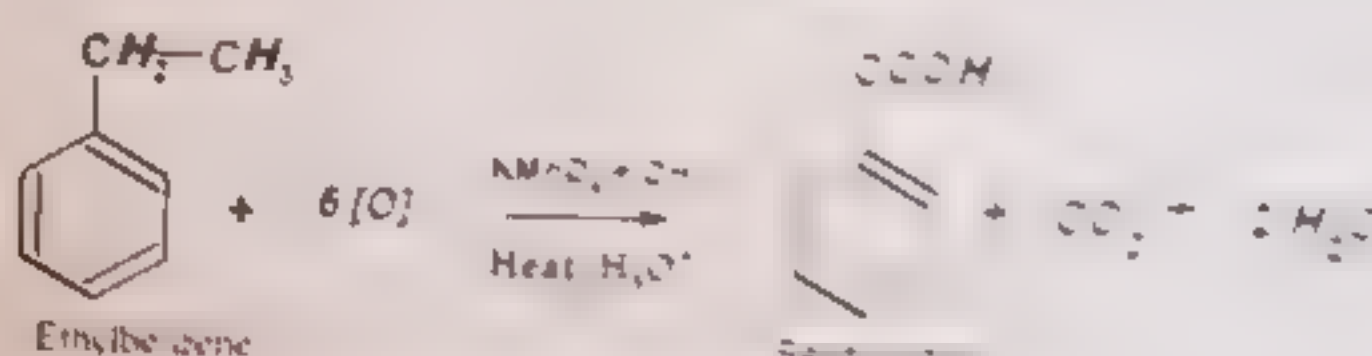
Unit 14: d and f-Block Elements: Transition Elements



In the oxidation of aromatic side chains

- Alkaline potassium manganate(VII) solution oxidises aromatic side chains to -COOH group. Prolonged reaction gives -COOH group.

Examples



- In the case of the ethyl side chain you will get a -COOH group.
- With longer side chains you will get a -COOH group.
- However, in each case, the main product will be -COOH.

USING POTASSIUM MANGANATE(VII) AS AN OXIDIZING AGENT IN TITRATIONS

Background

- Potassium manganate(VII) solution is used to determine the concentration of reducing agents.
- It is always used in acidic solution.

Examples: It oxidizes

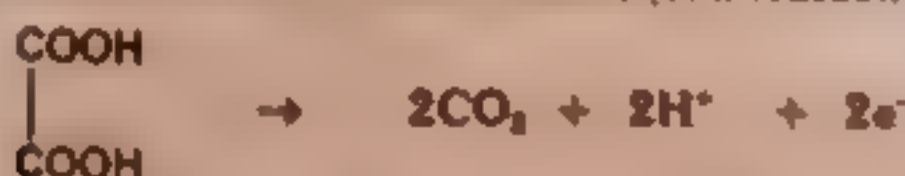
- Iron(II) ions to iron(III) ions



- Hydrogen peroxide solution to oxygen



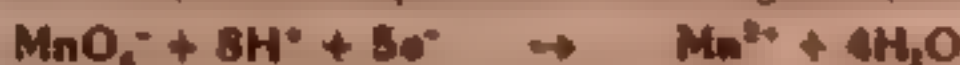
- Ethanedioic acid to carbon dioxide (This reaction has to be done in acidic solution)



- Sulphite ions (sulphate(IV) ions) to sulphate ions (sulphate(VI) ions)



- In each case, the half equation for the manganate(VII) ions in acidic solution is



- These equations can be combined to give you an overall ionic equation for each reaction.

- From the overall reaction the reacting proportions (mole ratio) is also obtained:

- e.g., Add the Fe^{2+} ions oxidation reaction to the MnO_4^- ions multiplying by suitable numbers



Thus, the reacting proportion is:

1 mole of permanganate(VII) ions : 5 moles of iron(II) ions. This mole ratio can be used for titration calculations.

Doing the titration

- The permanganate solution always added in the burette
- The titration is performed in acidic medium
- As the titration proceeds, the solution changes from colorless to pink
- Whenever a permanent pink color appears, the titration is complete

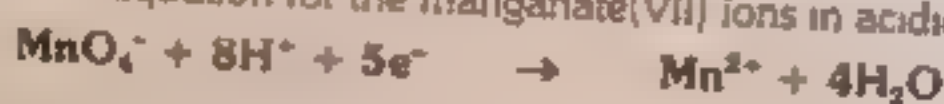
Problems with the use of potassium manganate(VII) solution

- Potassium manganate(VII) cannot be used as a primary standard because it is not stable in acidic solution. It undergoes side reactions with hydrochloric acid.
- Potassium manganate(VII) is not a primary standard. It means that a stable solution of accurately known concentration cannot be directly prepared by weighing it.
- Actually, it is a strong oxidizing agent that can oxidize water to oxygen. Moreover, it also oxidizes the water to oxygen and carbon dioxide.
- Bottles of potassium manganate(VII) solution are often found to contain a precipitate of manganese(IV) oxide. It is produced when the manganate(VII) solution is left in contact with water.
- So, first a solution of approximate concentration is prepared and then it is standardized.
- This standardization is often done by titration with ethanedioic acid (oxalic acid) which is a primary standard.

QUICK QUIZ 6

(1) Give half equation for manganate(VII) ion in acid solution.

The half-equation for the manganate(VII) ions in acidic solution is



(2) Write equation for oxidation of oxalic acid

Ethanedioic acid (oxalic acid) is oxidized by KMnO_4 to carbon dioxide. This reaction has to be done hot.

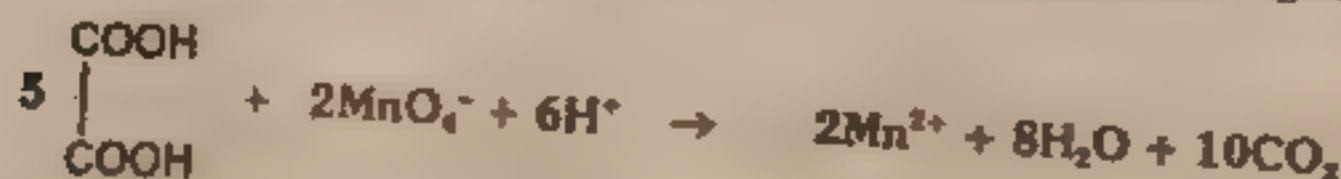
The half-equation for oxalic acid is



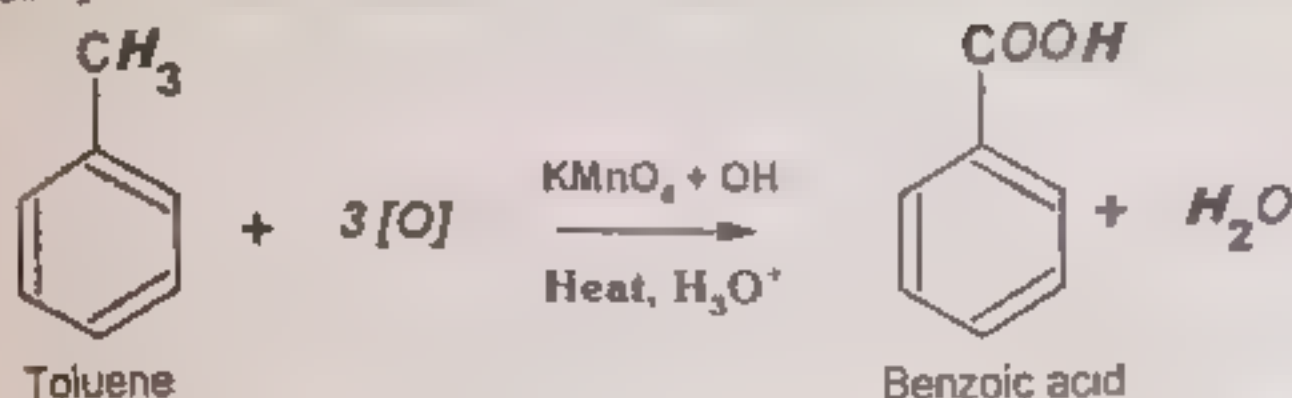
The half-equation for MnO_4^- is



Multiplying equation (1) by 5, equation (2) by 2 and then adding them gives the overall reaction



Q) How can you convert toluene into benzoic acid



Q) Write equation of reaction of hexaaquamanganate(II) with OH^- ion. What color change is observed

The equation is



- The original solution is as very light pink as colourless.
- When this reaction occurs, the pale brown precipitate of $[\text{Mn}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_4(\text{OH})_2]$ are formed. These are oxidized to darker brown manganese(III) oxide on contact with oxygen from the air.

IRON

The important points are:

- Oxidation state
- Iron as catalyst in Haber's Process and in reaction between persulphate and iodide ions
- Reaction of Hex aqua Iron (II) and (III) with water, ammonia, Carbonate and Thiocyanate ions

OXIDATION STATE

- Iron exists in two common oxidation states, +2 (Fe^{2+}) and +3 (Fe^{3+})
 - In aqueous solution, the Fe is readily oxidized from Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+}
- $$\text{Fe}^{2+}(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{Fe}^{3+}(\text{aq}) + \text{e}^-$$
- The Fe^{2+} ion is thus a reducing agent.
 - Thus, concentrations of Fe^{2+} in solution can be determined by titration with oxidizing agents.

IRON AS CATALYST IN THE HABER PROCESS

- The Haber process combines nitrogen and hydrogen into ammonia
- The nitrogen comes from the air and the hydrogen is obtained mainly from natural gas (methane)
- Iron is used as a catalyst.



IRON IONS AS A CATALYST IN THE REACTION BETWEEN PERSULPHATE IONS AND IODIDE IONS

- The reaction between persulphate ions (peroxodisulphate ions), $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$, and iodide ions in solution can be catalyzed using either iron(II) or iron(III) ions.
 - The overall equation for the reaction is:
- $$\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-} + 2\text{I}^- \rightarrow 2\text{SO}_4^{2-} + \text{I}_2$$
- Let the catalyst is iron(II) ions.
 - The reaction occurs in two stages.
- $$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-} + 2\text{Fe}^{2+} \rightarrow 2\text{SO}_4^{2-} + 2\text{Fe}^{3+} \\
 2\text{Fe}^{3+} + 2\text{I}^- \rightarrow 2\text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{I}_2
 \end{array}$$
- If iron(III) ions are used then the second of these reactions occurs first.
 - This is another example of the transition metal compounds to act as catalysts because of their ability to change oxidation state.

REACTIONS OF IRON IONS IN SOLUTION

The simplest ions

- the hexaaquairon(II) ion $[\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$
- the hexaaquairon(III) ion $[\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{3+}$

(I) Reactions of the Iron ions with hydroxide ions

- Hydroxide ions (e.g. from sodium hydroxide) attach to the iron ion.
- Once enough hydrogen ion has been removed from the water molecules, a complex is formed with no charge (a neutral precipitate).

In the iron(II) case

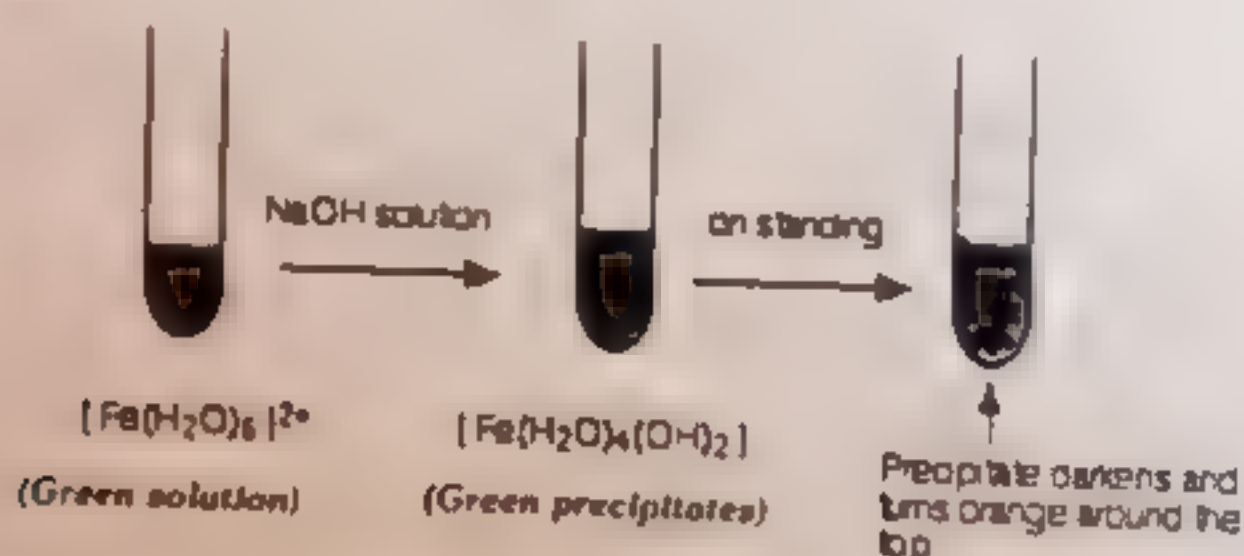


In the iron(III) case



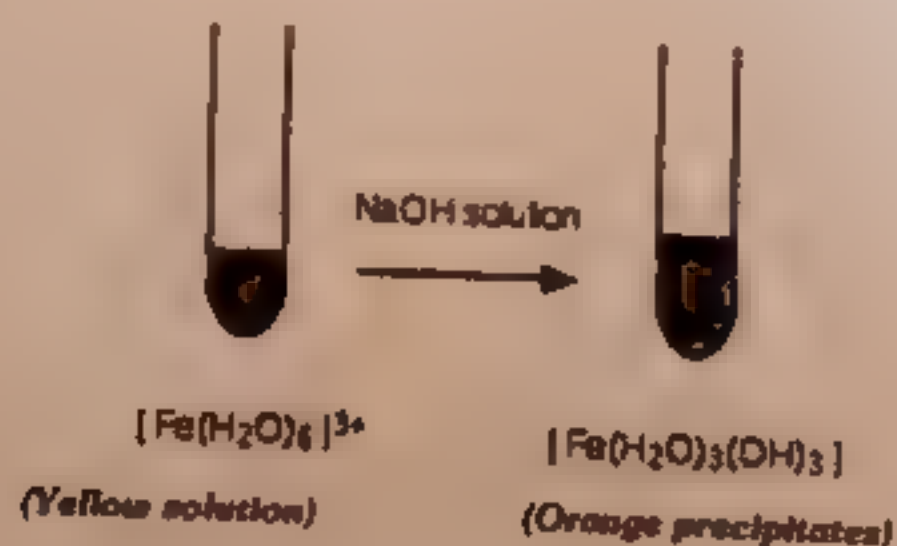
- In the test-tube, the colour changes are

In the iron(II) case



- Iron is very easily oxidized under alkaline conditions.
- Oxygen in the air oxidizes the iron(II) hydroxide precipitate to iron(III) hydroxide especially around the top of the tube.
- The darkening of the precipitate comes from the same effect.

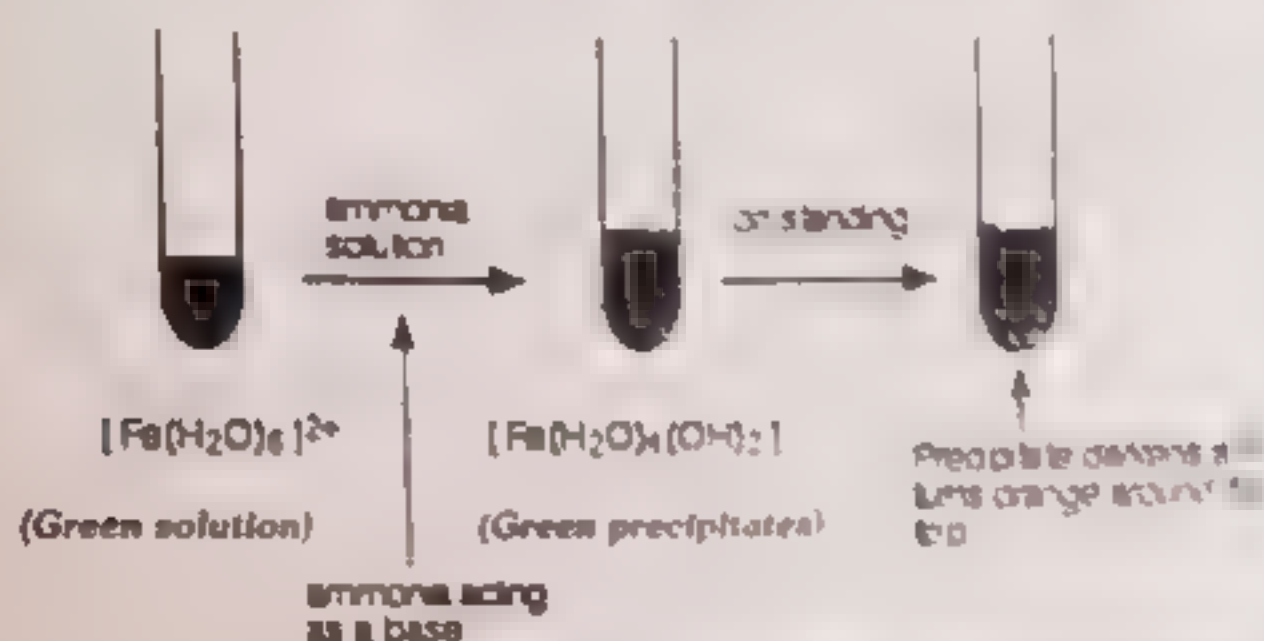
In the iron(III) case:



Reactions of the iron ions with ammonia solution

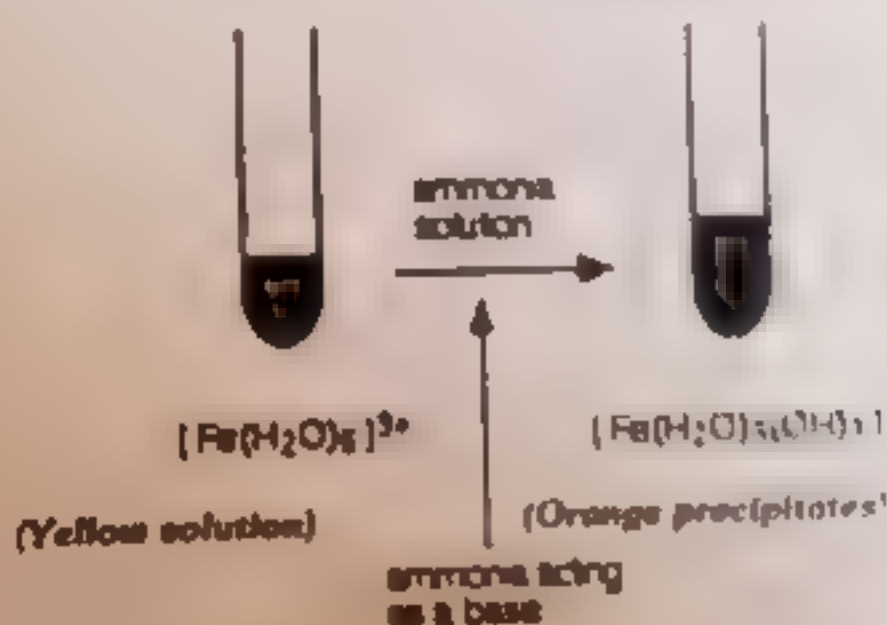
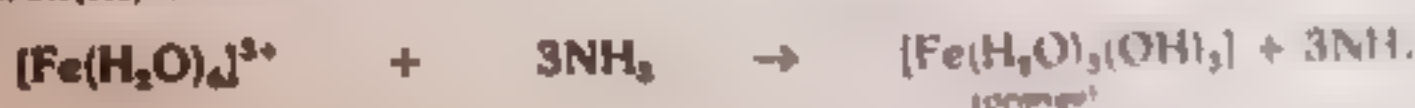
- Ammonia can act as both a base and a ligand.
- In these cases, it simply acts as a base.

In the iron(II) case:



- The appearance is just the same as in when you add sodium hydroxide.
- The precipitate again changes colour as the iron(II) hydroxide.

In the iron(III) case:



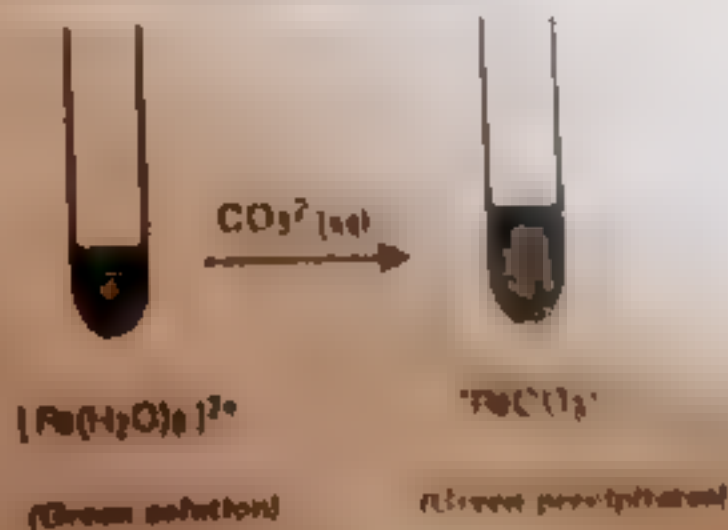
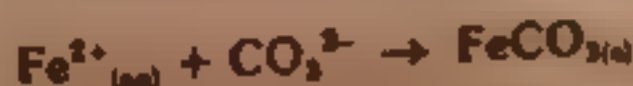
The reaction looks just the same as when you add sodium hydroxide solution.

(iii) Reactions of the iron ions with carbonate ions

There is an important difference here between the behaviour of iron(II) and iron(III) ions.

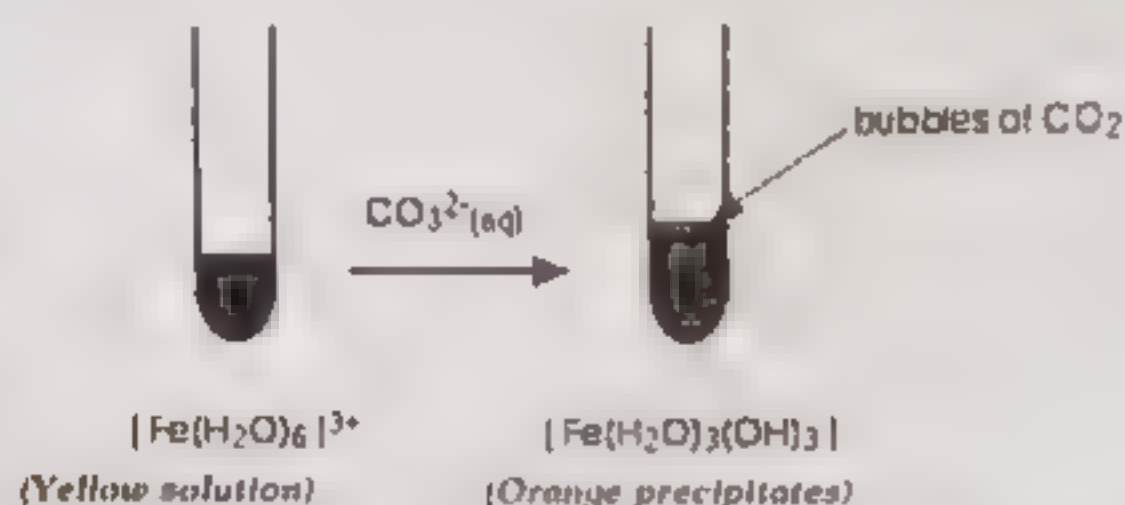
(a) Iron(II) ions and Carbonate ions

The precipitates of iron(II) carbonate are produced



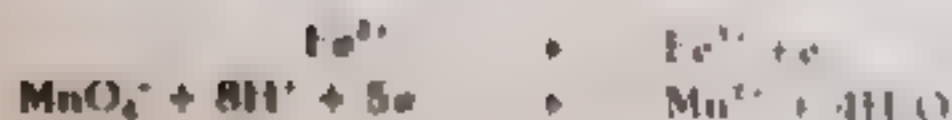
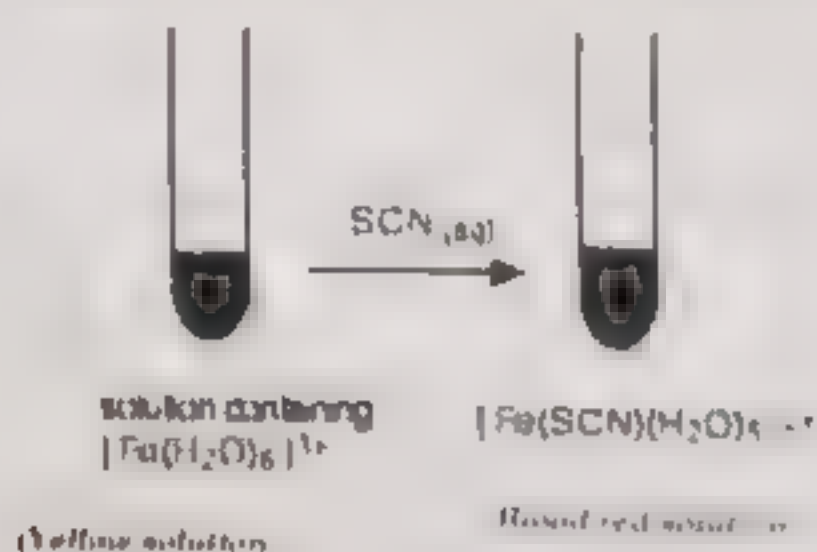
(b) Iron(III) ions and Carbonate ions

- The hexaaquairon(III) ion is sufficiently acidic to react with the weakly basic carbonate ions.
- If sodium carbonate solution is added to a solution of hexaaquairon(III) ions, the same precipitate is obtained as with sodium hydroxide solution or ammonia solution.
- This time, it is the carbonate ions which remove hydrogen ions from the hexaaqua ion and produce a neutral complex.
- Depending on the proportions of carbonate ions to hexaaqua ions, there are two possibilities for the products:
 - ✓ either hydrogencarbonate ions are formed
 - ✓ or carbon dioxide gas is formed from the reaction between the hydrogen ions and carbonate ions
- The more usually quoted equation shows the formation of carbon dioxide



(iv) Testing for Iron(III) ions with thiocyanate ions

- This provides an extremely sensitive test for iron(III) ions in solution.
- If thiocyanate ions, SCN^- ions (e.g. from sodium or potassium or ammonium thiocyanate solution) are added to a solution containing iron(III) ions, an intense blood red solution containing the ion $[\text{Fe}(\text{SCN})(\text{H}_2\text{O})_5]^{2+}$ is formed.



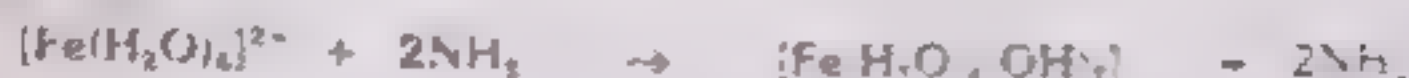
These combine to give the ionic equation for the reaction:



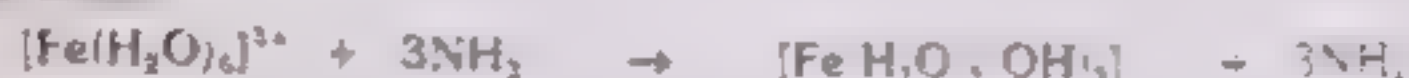
QUICK QUIZ-7

1) Give the reaction of iron(II) ions with ammonia.

Answer: Iron(II) ions react with ammonia to form a precipitate of iron(II) hydroxide.



2) Give the reaction of iron(III) ions with ammonia.



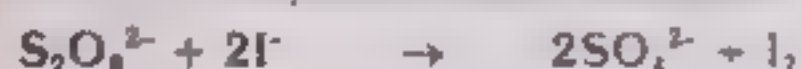
3) In which form iron ion are present in aqueous solution?

Iron exists in aqueous solution as hexa-aqua ions:

- the hexa-aqua iron(II) ion: $[\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$
- the hexa-aqua iron(III) ion: $[\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{3+}$

4) Write reaction equation between persulphate ion and iodide ion.

- The overall equation for the reaction is:



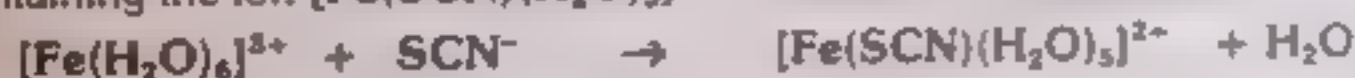
- This reaction can be catalyzed by iron ions. The reaction is:



- If iron(III) ions are used then the second of these reactions occurs:

5) How thiocyanate ion is used for testing of Fe?

If thiocyanate ions, SCN^- ions are added to a solution containing iron(III) ions, a complex ion containing the ion $[\text{Fe}(\text{SCN})(\text{H}_2\text{O})_5]^{2+}$ is formed. The reaction is:



SCN^- ions are added as sodium or potassium or ammonium thiocyanate solution.

COPPER

The important discussion includes:

- The Oxidation States
- The reaction of hexa-aquacopper (II) ions with hydroxide ions, Ammonia and Carbonate ions.

THE OXIDATION STATES

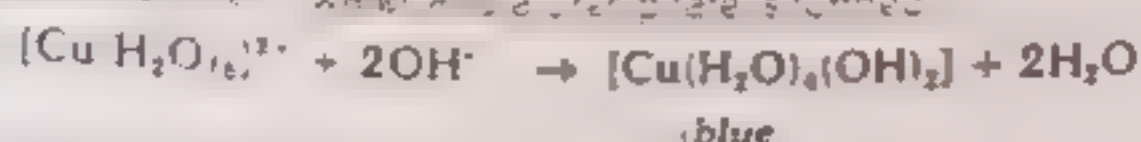
- Copper exists in two common oxidation states, +1 (Cu^+) and +2 (Cu^{2+}).
- In aqueous solution, the Cu^+ is readily oxidized from Cu^+ to Cu^{2+} :



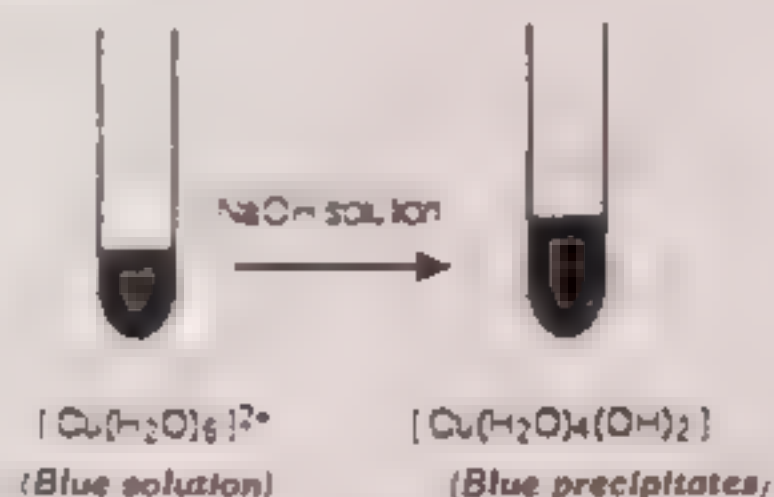
- The Cu^+ ion is thus a reducing agent.
- Thus, concentrations of Cu^+ in solution can be determined by titration with oxidizing agents.

THE REACTION OF HEXAAQUACOPPER(II) IONS WITH HYDROXIDE IONS

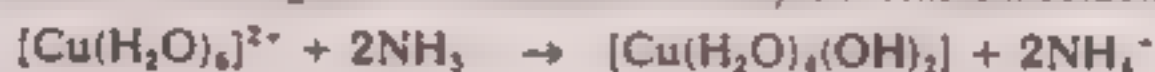
- Hydroxide ions, e.g. from sodium hydroxide solution, remove hydrogen ions from the water molecules of the hexaaqua ion.
- Four of the six water molecules are removed from two of the water molecules a complex is formed with two hydroxide ions. This is insoluble in water and a precipitate is formed.
- This insoluble precipitate is a blue precipitate.



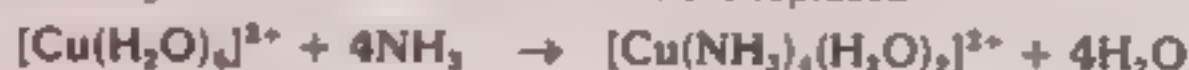
- In the test tube the colour changes

**REACTIONS OF HEXAAQUACOPPER(II) IONS WITH AMMONIA SOLUTION**

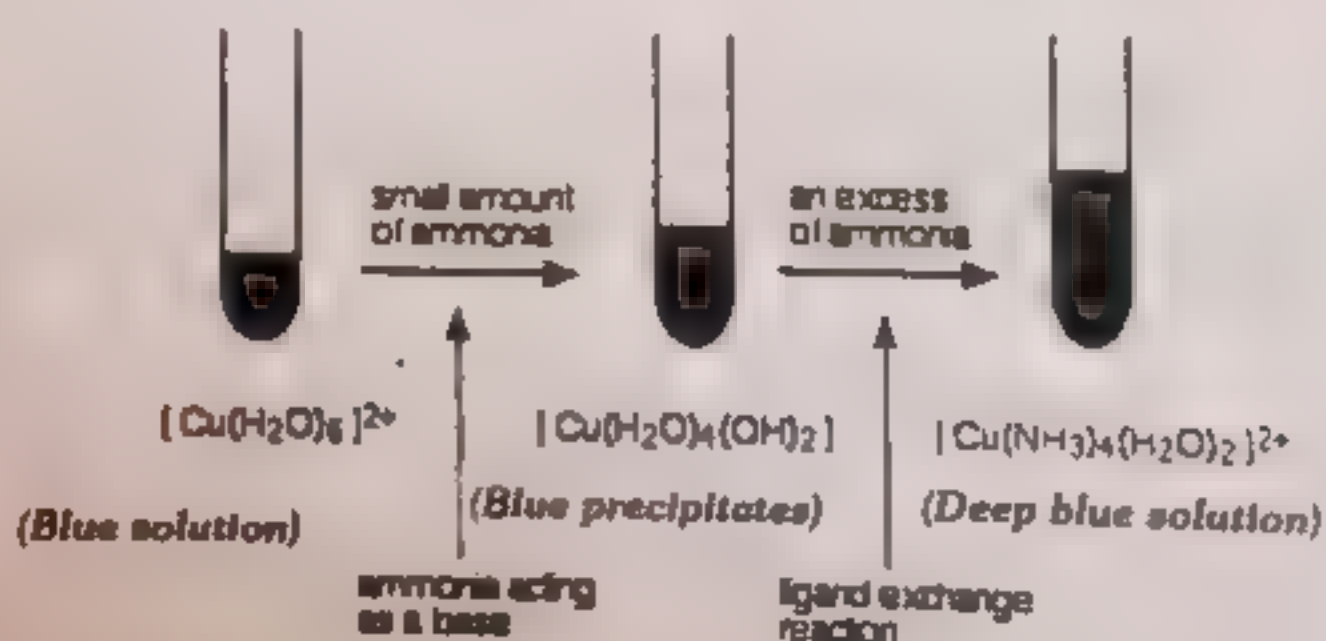
- Here, the ammonia acts both as a base and as a ligand.
- With a small amount of ammonia, hydrogen ions are pulled off the hexaaqua ion exactly as in the hydroxide ion case to give the same neutral complex. This is insoluble and precipitates are formed.



- The precipitate dissolves by adding an excess of ammonia.
- The ammonia replaces water as a ligand to give tetraammineaquacopper(II) ions.
- Notice that only 4 of the 6 water molecules are replaced.

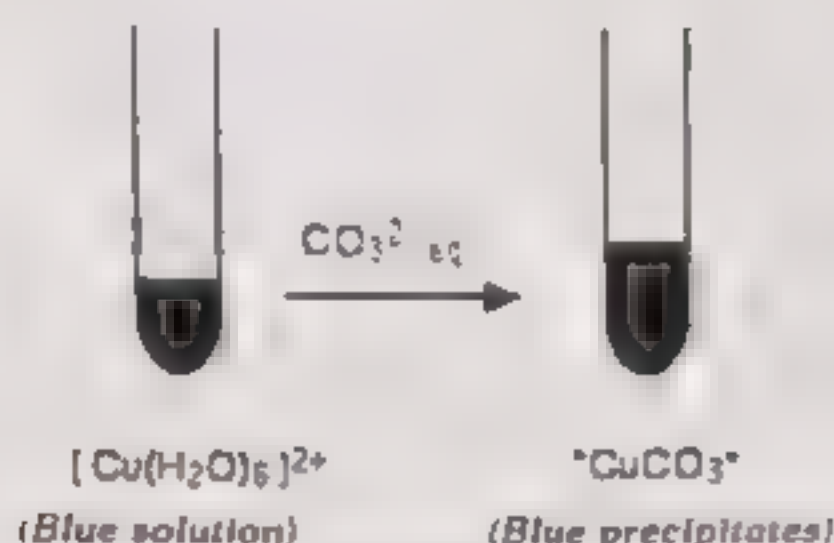


- The colour changes are:



REACTION OF HEXAAQUACOPPER(II) IONS WITH CARBONATE IONS

The precipitates of copper(II) carbonate are obtained



QUICK QUIZ-8:

Ammonia acts as base as well as ligand. Prove above statement by reaction with copper ion.

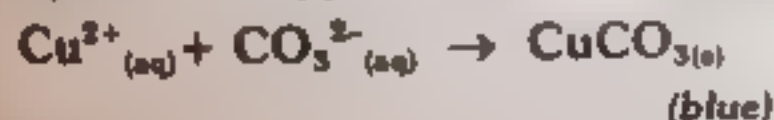
- Copper ions exist as hexaaqua complex in water
- With a small amount of ammonia, hydrogen ions are pulled off the hexaaqua ion to give the same neutral complex. This is insoluble and precipitates are formed. Here ammonia is acting as a base

$$[\text{Cu}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+} + 2\text{NH}_3 \rightarrow [\text{Cu}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_4(\text{OH})_2] + 2\text{NH}_4^+$$
- The precipitate dissolves by adding an excess of ammonia. The ammonia replaces water as a ligand to give tetraamminediaquacopper(II) ions. Here, ammonia is acting as a ligand

$$[\text{Cu}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+} + 4\text{NH}_3 \rightarrow [\text{Cu}(\text{NH}_3)_4(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2]^{2+} + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$$
- Only 4 of the 6 water molecules are replaced

When copper ion reacts with carbonate. What you expect. Which types of precipitate are formed?

The precipitates of copper(II) carbonate are obtained when copper (II) ions react with a carbonate



This reaction is used as a test for copper (II) ions.

Cu¹⁺ ion is reducing/oxidizing agent and why?

- Copper exists in two common oxidation states, +1 (Cu¹⁺) and +2 (Cu²⁺)
- In aqueous solution, the Cu is readily oxidized from Cu¹⁺ to Cu²⁺

$$\text{Cu}^{1+}(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{Cu}^{2+}(\text{aq}) + e^-$$
- The Cu¹⁺ ion is thus a reducing agent.

Treated in 1 hour by a 1 pound

Name of Compound	Uses
Lead Monoxide	<p>i) It is used in the manufacture of lead glass.</p> <p>ii) It is used in the manufacture of lead pigments.</p>
Lead Suboxide	<p>i) It is used in the manufacture of lead glass.</p> <p>ii) It is used in the manufacture of lead pigments.</p>
Lead Dioxide	<p>i) It is used in the manufacture of lead glass.</p> <p>ii) It is used in the manufacture of lead pigments.</p>
Triplumbic tetra oxide (Red Lead)	<p>i) It is used in the manufacture of lead glass.</p> <p>ii) It is used in the manufacture of lead pigments.</p> <p>iii) It is used in the manufacture of lead pigments.</p>
Basic Lead Carbonate	<p>i) It is used in the manufacture of lead glass.</p> <p>ii) It is used in the manufacture of lead pigments.</p> <p>iii) It is used in the manufacture of lead pigments.</p>

EXERCISE

Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

Some metals are actually

(a) Alkali metals

(b) Alkaline earth metals

(c) Transition metals

(d) None of these

Which of the following is non typical transition element?

(a) Fe

(b) Cu

(c) Ag

(d) Au

(e) None of these

Magnetic moment (μ_B) of an atom is directly proportional to

(a) Number of unpaired electrons

(b) Atomic number

(c) Atomic weight

(d) None of these

(e) None of these

Give the systematic name for $Fe(CO)_5$

(a) Pentacarbonyl iron (III)

(b) Pentacarbonyl iron (II)

(c) Pentacarbonyl iron (I)

(d) Pentacarbonyl iron (0)

Give the chemical formula of a complex compound sodium monochloropentamminecobalt (III)

(a) $[Na_5CoCl(CN)_5]$

(b) $Fe [NaCl(CN)_5]$

(c) $[Co(NH_3)_5Cl]Cl$

(d) $[Co(NH_3)_5Cl]Cl$

Which metal oxide is used in contact process as a catalyst?

(a) Cr

(b) Mn

(c) Fe

(d) None of these

Following element shows maximum number of oxidation states?

(a) Mn

(b) Fe

(c) Co

(d) None of these

The color of Mn^{2+} in hydrated form is:

(a) Blue

(b) Yellow

(c) Light Pink

(d) None of these

Which of the following metals show more than one oxidation state?

(a) Al

(b) Mg

(c) Fe

(d) None of these

Iron is used as a catalyst in:

(a) Birkland Process

(b) Contact Process

(c) Haber Process

(d) None of these

During the reaction of Ammonia with Iron, it acts as both a base and a.

(a) Ligand

(b) Acid

(c) Iron

(d) None of these

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

(i) Ans: (c) Transition metals
Some metals are actually Cu, Ag and Au. These are transition elements.

(ii) Ans: (c) Zn
It is because it has completely filled d-subshell
The electronic configuration of Zn is $[Ar] 4s^2 3d^{10}$.

(iii) Ans: (c) It has completely filled d-subshell
The electronic configuration of $_{30}Zn$ is $[Ar] 4s^2 3d^{10}$
Thus, it has completely filled d-subshell. So, it is not a transition element.
+2 oxidation state due to loss of $2e^-$ from $4s$ subshell.

(iv) Ans: (d) Transition elements
Transition elements have almost similar sizes and atoms of the one metal can easily take up positions in crystal lattice.

DATE _____ TIME _____

(1) Ans: (c) Magnetism

(10) Ans: (d) Electron

(2) Ans: (c) Bohr magneton (BM)

(11) Ans: (c) Cu and Zn

(3) Ans: (c) Paramagnetic ions (ii)

(12) Ans: (c) $\text{Mn} \cdot \text{FeCl}_2$

(4) Ans: (d) both a and c

(13) Ans: (d) Iron ions

(5) Ans: (c) V

(14) Ans: (d) Light yellow

(6) Ans: (d) oxidizing agent

(15) Ans: (d) Mn

(7) Ans: (c) Light Pink

(16) Ans: (c) Fe

(8) Ans: (c) Haber Process

(17) Ans: None of these

(9) Ans: (c) $\text{H}_2 + 2\text{H}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2$

Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

(i) Why are d-block elements called transition elements?

They are called transition elements because they have partially filled d-orbitals in their atoms or ions.

(ii) Why do the d-block elements show different oxidation states?

They show various oxidation states because the energy difference between the (n-1)d and ns orbitals are very small, so they can lose electrons from both orbitals as easily as from the ns orbital. Thus d-block elements show different oxidation states.

(iii) Why does Mn show the maximum number of oxidation states in 3d?

It is because, Mn has two electrons in 4s orbital. Generally, greater the number of unpaired electrons, greater the number of oxidation states.

USE 2 to 7

Mn can

d and f-Block Elements: Transition Elements

electrons in bond formation. H.
oxidation states of Mn are: +2, +3, +4

What is the difference between double salts and coordination or complex compounds?

A double salt contains two salts crystallised together.
e.g. potash alum, $K_2SO_4 \cdot Al_2(SO_4)_3 \cdot 24H_2O$

A complex compound contains coordinate covalent bonds

e.g. $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$

A double salt does not contain co

Explain the following terms

(a) Ligand

The atom, ion (usually anions) or neutral molecule which surrounds the central metal atom or ion by donating the electron pair is called ligand

Examples:-

In $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$, $[Fe(CN)_6]^{4-}$ is the complex ion.
In $[Cu(NH_3)_4]SO_4$ and $Aq. NH_3$, NH_3 is the ligand.

(b) Coordination Sphere

The central neutral atom or ion along with ligand is called coordination sphere. It is usually placed in the square brackets. It may be positively charged, negatively charged or neutral

Examples:-

In $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$, the ion $[Fe(CN)_6]^{4-}$ is the coordination sphere

In $[Cu(NH_3)_4]SO_4$, the ion $[Cu(NH_3)_4]^{2+}$ is the coordination sphere

(c) Central Metal

The metal atom or ion is usually a transition element. It is surrounded by a number of ligands

Examples:-

In $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$,

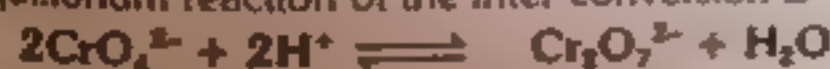
Fe^{+2} is the central metal ion. Six ligands (CN^- ions) are surrounding it.

In $[Cu(NH_3)_4]SO_4$,

Cu^{+2} is the central metal ion. Four ligands (NH_3 ions) are surrounding it.

How chromate ions are converted into dichromate ions?

The equilibrium reaction of the inter-conversion is



If an acid is added then extra H^+ ions are added to this equilibrium. Hence according to Le Chatelier's principle, the equilibrium shifts to the right. Thus, chromate ions are converted into dichromate ions.

Adding hydrogen ions forces the position of equilibrium to the right



Hydrogen

What is the difference between paramagnetism and diamagnetism?

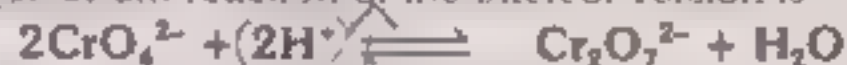
Substances which are attracted by magnetic field are called paramagnetic and the phenomenon is called paramagnetism. These substances have unpaired electrons present in the substances. e.g. Mn^{2+} ions *(old)*
Substances which are repelled by magnetic field are called diamagnetic and the phenomenon is called diamagnetism. These substances have even number of electrons are present and thus have no net magnetic moment. e.g. *FeCl₃*

What are advantages of Potassium dichromate in titrations?

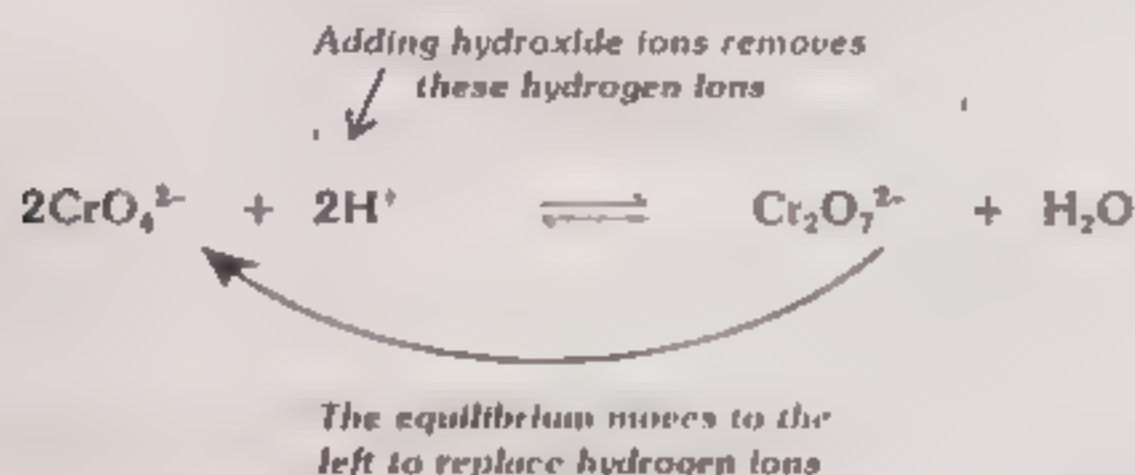
- Potassium dichromate (VI) can be used as a primary standard. It means that it is stable and accurate. Potassium dichromate can be directly prepared by weighing it.
- Potassium dichromate (VI) can be used in the presence of chloride ions. It is possible if chloride ions are not present in very high concentration. Thus, no unwanted side reactions occurs.

(ix) How does dichromate ion converted into chromate ions.

- The equilibrium reaction of the interconversion is



- When hydroxide ions are added to this equilibrium, these react with the hydrogen ions. Thus according to Le-Chatelier's principle, the equilibrium shifts to the left to replace them. Hence, dichromate ions are converted into chromate ions.



Hydroxide
10

Q3: Give detailed answers for the following questions.

(i) (a) What is the valence shell configuration of transition elements? How does it affect the following properties?

(i) Binding energy (ii) Paramagnetism (iii) oxidation states
See Page 69, 70

(b) What are typical and non-typical transition elements?
See Page 67

(c) Explain catalytic Activity of transition elements
See Page 71

(d) Write composition, properties and uses of Brass, Bronze and Nichrome alloys
See Page 72

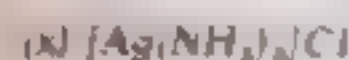
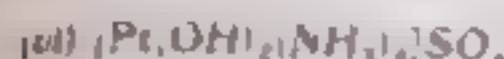
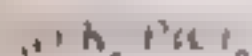
(ii) (a) Explain different types of ligand with examples

(b) Describe the rules for naming the coordination complexes with examples
See Page 76

(iii) (a) Explain shapes and origin of colors of coordination compounds
See Page 74

(b) Relate the coordination number of ions to the crystal structure of the compound.
part

a) Write systematic names to following complexes



b) Write chemical formulae for

(i) Potassiumhexachlorocobaltate

(ii) Sodium tetrachloronickelate

(iii) Tetrammine copper (I) sulphate

(iv) Potassium hexachloroplatinate

(v) Dichlorotetrammine cobalt

c) Discuss vanadium (V) oxide as a catalyst.

See Page 53

d) How does chromium (III) changes to chromate?

See Page 54

e) Discuss potassium dichromate (VI) and Potassium permanganate chemistry.

See Page 57

TEST YOUR SKILLS

Marks: 85

OBJECTIVE

Marks: 17

1. The general electronic configuration of d-block elements is B. $(n-1)d^x ns^2$
2. The oxidation state of Mn in MnO_2 is C. +4
3. Which of the following does not show variable valency? B. Zn
4. Which of the following is paramagnetic? D. All of above
5. The hybridization of Cu in $Cu(NH_3)_4^{+2}$ is B. dsp
6. Group 6 B or transition elements contain C. Cr, Mo, W
7. The transition elements and their compounds are coloured due to splitting in A. d-orbitals
8. The first transition series ends on the element C. Zinc
9. The oxidation state of Fe in $FeCl_2$ is B. +2
10. The shape of $CoCl_4^{2-}$ is B. Octahedral
11. The strength of binding energy of transition elements depends upon B. number of unpaired electron
12. If we add HNO_3 to the original chromium (II) solution it produces A. blue ions
13. All chromates are mostly B. yellow
14. The oxidation of CH_3OH is carried out with which of the following catalysts? D. $ZnO-Cr_2O_3$
15. Acidified $KMnO_4$ acts as B. Oxidizing agent
16. Brass alloy contains which of the following elements? B. Cu, Zn
17. Iron is used as a catalyst in C. Haber Process

SUBJECTIVE

Time: 2:35 Hours

Section - B Marks 42 $14 \times 3 = 42$

Total Marks Section B and C: 65

Q2 Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not exceed 5 to 6 lines.

- What is Paramagnetism?
 - What is the cause of Paramagnetism?
 - How does cerium (II) get oxidized?
 - Give one factor, test for Fe^{3+} ions.
- (iii) Name the following co-ordination compounds
- K_2FeCl_4
 - $CoBr(NH_3)_5$
- (iv) a. What are Complexes
b. Write the systematic name of the complex K_2PtCl_6
c. Why Fe^{2+} ions do not exist in solution?
- How is chromate ion (CrO_4^{2-}) converted into dichromate ion?
 - Draw the geometric shape of co-ordination number 4 complexes
 - Why transition elements show variable oxidation state?

4. In which titration end point is observed?

Section - C

Note: Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. (2 × 13 = 26)

- Q 3 a How does ammonia react with hexaaquamanganese(II)?
b When copper ion reacts with carbonate which type of reaction is observed?
c What are the uses of potassium permanganate in organic chemistry?
- Q 4 a How does hexaaquamanganese(II) react with the following?
(i) hydrosulphide ions (ii) ammonia solution
b What is geometry of the following complexes/compounds?
(i) $[\text{MnCl}_6]^{4-}$ (ii) $[\text{Cu}(\text{NH}_3)_4]^{2+}$ (iii) $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6]^{3+}$
c How does iron act as a catalyst in the reaction between persulphate ions and iodide ions?
- Q 5 a Explain catalytic activity of transition elements
b What is a ligand? What are its types?
c Write IUPAC names of the following
(i) $\text{K}_2[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$ (ii) $[\text{PtCl}_2(\text{NH}_3)_4]\text{SO}_4$ (iii) $[\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3(\text{H}_2\text{O})_3]$
(iv) $[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6]\text{Cl}_2$ (v) $[\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$

ORGANIC COMPOUNDS



Major sources of organic compounds are:

- Fossil Fuels
- Plants
- Animals

Examples of organic compounds are:

- Methane (CH_4)
- Ethane (C_2H_6)
- Propane (C_3H_8)
- Butane (C_4H_{10})
- Pentane (C_5H_{12})
- Hexane (C_6H_{14})
- Heptane (C_7H_{16})
- Octane (C_8H_{18})
- Nonane (C_9H_{20})
- Decane ($\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{22}$)

Exercise Q3 (1) What are the main sources of organic compounds?

SOURCES OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

Fossil Fuels

The dead remains of living organisms are called fossil remains.

The main sources of organic compounds are coal, petroleum and natural gas because they are formed from fossil remains.

(1) COAL

- Coal is the major source of organic compounds.
- It yields coke and coal-tar on pyrolysis or destructive distillation.
- More than 2500 organic compounds have been directly isolated from coal.
- These coal tar products form the starting materials for the manufacture of many organic compounds.

2) PETROLEUM

- Petroleum is a naturally occurring mixture of hydrocarbons and other organic compounds.
- It is a fossil fuel and is called the 'black gold'.

Properties of Petroleum

- Petroleum is a mixture of many different hydrocarbons.
- It is a liquid at room temperature.
- It is insoluble in water.
- It is a good conductor of electricity.

3) NATURAL GAS

- Natural gas is a mixture of hydrocarbons, primarily methane.
- It is a fossil fuel and is called the 'cleanest' fossil fuel.

4) PLANTS

- Plants are a source of many organic compounds.
- Examples include: cellulose, starch, sugar, oil, and rubber.

PARTIAL AND TOTAL SYNTHESIS

The process in which compounds isolated from natural sources (e.g., plant material or coal or petroleum etc.) are used as starting materials to produce other organic molecules is called partial synthesis.

The process in which an organic molecule is synthesized from small and cheap readily available molecules is called total synthesis.

- Examples of partial synthesis: synthesis of aspirin from salicylic acid and acetic anhydride.
- Examples of total synthesis: synthesis of penicillin from glucose and other simple molecules.

Examples

- Many synthetic organic compounds have replaced the compounds from natural sources e.g., dyes, rubber, fibres, plastics, drugs, vitamins.
- In many cases the synthetic materials are superior to the natural compounds replaced e.g., synthetic dyes are superior to those of natural origin.
- In other cases the synthetic materials are chemically identical to the natural compounds e.g., ether, glycerol, menthol, and the vitamins.

FERMENTATION

Fermentation is defined as the production of chemicals by the action of micro-organisms. By employing appropriate organism hosts, useful substances are produced such as ethanol, vinegar, vitamins and antibiotics.

QUICK QUIZ-1

(1) Define modern definition of organic chemistry?

Organic chemistry is that branch of chemistry which deals with the study of compounds containing carbon and its derivatives.

2) List the important organic compounds

3) Write important products from petroleum

Crude oil, Gasoline, Kerosene, Diesel, Lubricants, Bitumen, Toluene $C_6H_5CH_3$, Xylene $C_6H_4(CH_3)_2$

4) What are alcohols?

Alcohols are organic compounds containing hydroxyl group. e.g. Ethanol, Methanol. They are produced by various methods like fermentation, hydration of alkenes, etc.

(5) Define fermentation?

Fermentation is the production of chemicals by the action of microorganisms.

By employing appropriate microorganisms, useful substances are produced like alcohols, vitamins and antibiotics.

COAL (AS A SOURCE OF ORGANIC COMPOUND)

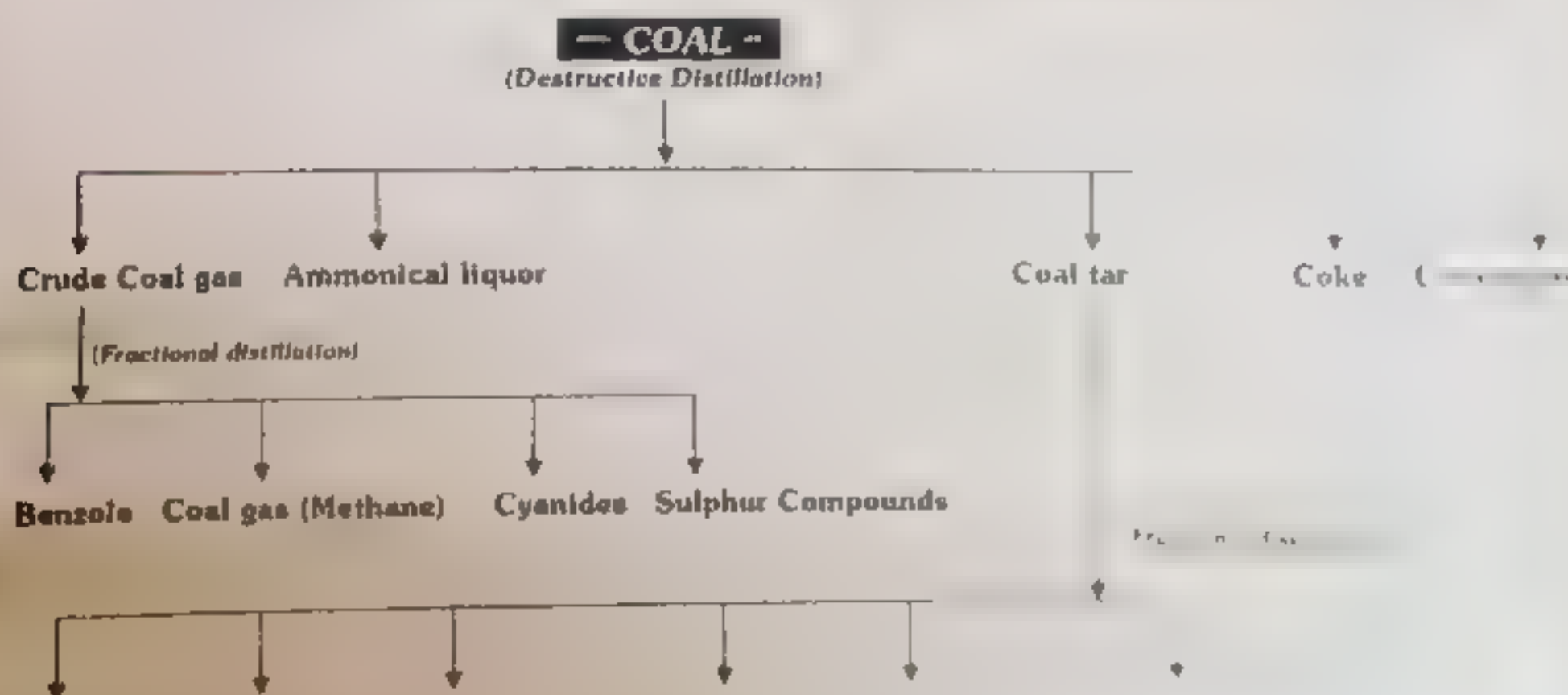
- Coal is produced by the decaying of trees buried under the earth's surface under high temperature and pressure. These trees got converted into coal.
- The total coal reserves of Pakistan are estimated to be the 4th largest in the world.

DESTRUCTIVE DISTILLATION OF COAL

The distillation carried out in the absence of air is called destructive distillation.

Process

- When coal is heated in the absence of air (temperature range $1000^\circ C$), it produces coke, coal gas and coal tar.
 - Coal tar contains a large number of organic compounds which separate out.
- The separation of liquids on the basis of their boiling points is called fractional distillation.



CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

Exercise Q3 (ii) Write down the characteristics of organic compound from inorganic compounds

Organic compounds

1. Composition

Carbon is always present in organic compounds.

2. Combustion

Organic compounds burn in air to form carbon dioxide and water.

3. Melting and Boiling Points

Organic compounds have low melting and boiling points.

4. Solubility

Organic compounds are generally insoluble in water but soluble in organic solvents like benzene, ether, chloroform, etc. The organic compounds are generally soluble in organic solvents.

5. Stability

Since organic compounds are covalent in nature, they are generally stable at high temperature into simple molecules.

6. Electrical Conductivity

Due to the presence of covalent bonds, organic compounds are poor conductors of electricity both in fused state and in solution form.

7. Source

Most of organic compounds are obtained from plants and animals.

8. Rate of Reaction

Their rates of reaction are very slow and need high temperature.

QUICK QUIZ-2

(1) What is coal?

It is a black colour mineral. Coal is produced by the decay of plants under the influence of temperature and pressure. These trees get buried under the ground.

(2) What are the products of fractional distillation of coal tar?

Benzene, Toluene, Xylene, Naphthalene, Phenols and many others.

(3) What we obtain by fractional distillation of coal gas?

Benzole, Coal gas (Methane), Cyanides, Sulphur Compounds

Exercise Q3 (iii) How organic compounds are used in our daily life?

USES OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

No field of science is so closely related with our daily activities as is organic chemistry.

- The food is mainly organic in nature.
- The food undergoes changes in our bodies which are organic chemical reactions.
- Metabolism, growth and maintenance of our bodily functions involve organic chemistry. In fact, case with all changes taking place throughout the entire living world - plant and animal.

Chapter 10: Organic Chemistry



- The study of the chemical and physical properties of organic compounds.
- The study of the chemical and physical properties of organic compounds.
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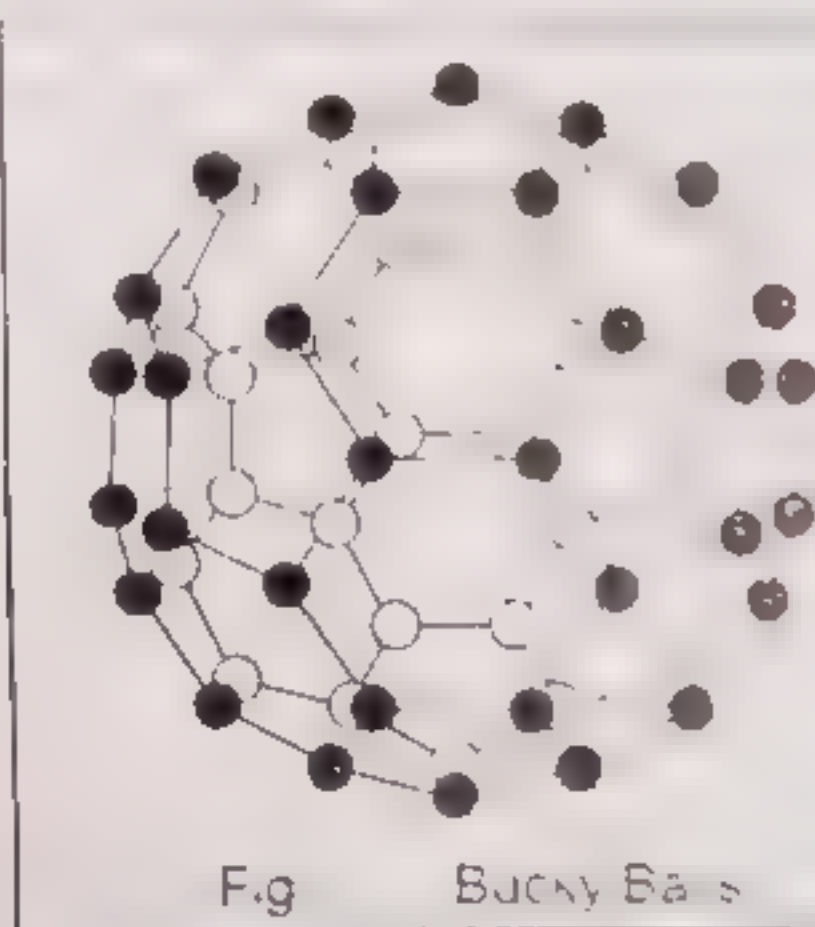
1. Food: Preservatives, Additives
2. Clothing: Synthetic Fibres, Dyes, Pigments
 - Textiles
 - Synthetic Fibres
3. Shelter: Plastics, Paints, Adhesives
4. Power and Transportation: Fuels, Lubricants, Polymers
5. Medicines and Drugs: Pharmaceuticals, Vitamins, Hormones
6. Insecticides: Pesticides, Fertilizers
7. Hormones and Steroids
8. Vitamins and Enzymes: Enzymes are biological catalysts
9. Antiseptics and Anesthetics: Pharmaceuticals
10. Pigments and Dyes: Colourants, Textiles, Paints
11. Paper and Inks: Polymers, Additives
12. Perfumes and Flavors: Fragrances, Aromatics
13. Plastics, Rubbers, and Resins: Polymers, Additives
14. Propellants and Explosives: Fuels, Explosives
15. Soaps and Detergents: Surfactants, Cleaners
16. Herbicides: Pesticides, Fertilizers
17. Photographic films and Developers
18. Biological Problems and Organic Chemistry:
 - Most of the living organisms are made up of organic compounds.
 - e.g. proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, nucleic acids, etc.
 - metabolism and growth processes.

NEW ALLOTROPE OF CARBON: BUCKY BALLS

- These have carbon atoms arranged in a cage like structure. They are called Bucky Balls.
- The simplest of them is C_{60} and its structure is shown below.
- The carbon atoms fold are arranged in a hexagonal structure.

Structure of Bucky Balls

- These have carbon atoms arranged in a cage like structure. They are called Bucky Balls.
- The simplest of them is C_{60} and its structure is shown below.
- The carbon atoms fold are arranged in a hexagonal structure.
- The new molecule is called Bucky Balls.



QUICK QUIZ-3

(1) What are allotropes?

An element may exist in different crystalline forms. This property is called allotropy.

- e.g. (i) C (as diamond) _____ in cubic form
(ii) C (as graphite) _____ in hexagonal form

(2) Define the third allotropic form of carbon.

- In 1985, a new group of allotropic forms of carbon was discovered.
- The full name of Bucky Balls is Buckminster Fullerenes.
- Scientists named it after an architect Buckminster who designed a geodesic dome building in Montreal.

(3) Why it was given the name Bucky balls?

- Scientists named Bucky balls after an architect Buckminster who designed a geodesic dome building in Montreal.

FUNCTIONAL GROUPS AND HOMOLOGOUS SERIES

Section 1.1: Alcohols, Aldehydes, Ketones, Carboxylic Acids, Amines, Nitriles, and Esters

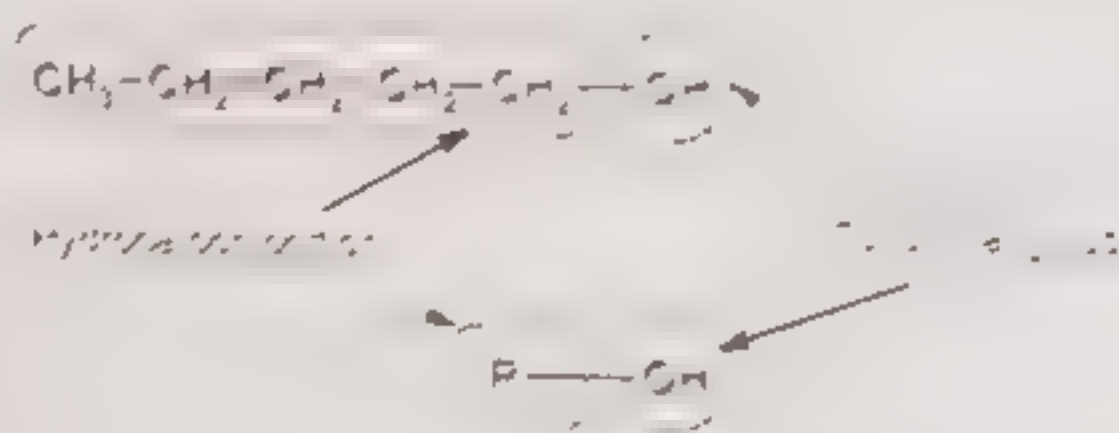
FUNCTIONAL GROUP

A functional group is a group of atoms within a molecule that is responsible for the characteristic chemical reactions of that molecule.

- Functional groups are responsible for the chemical and physical properties of organic compounds.
- They determine the reactivity of a molecule.

Examples

Alcohols: $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$



R is defined as any group

- The symbol R- is used to represent an alkyl group. Thus R- can be CH_3 , CH_3CH_2 , $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2$, etc. The valence by which the functional group is attached.
- The functional group is the active group in a molecule. It is the part of the molecule that is responsible for the characteristic chemical reactions of that molecule.
- Each functional group undergoes characteristic chemical reactions. In a molecule, it is possible to predict the reactions of a molecule based on the functional group present.

Importance:

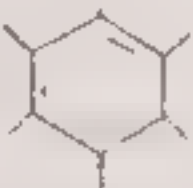
The concept of functional group is important in organic chemistry.

- Functional groups serve as basis for nomenclature. Compounds with the same functional group belong to the same class.
- Functional groups serve to classify organic compounds. Compounds with the same functional group belong to the same class.
- A functional group is a site of chemical reactivity in a molecule. Compounds with similar chemical properties.

Remember! Abbreviations for common Alkyl/Aril groups. These are to be used in writing chemical names.

Methyl (Me), Ethyl (Et), n-Propyl (n-Pr), isopropyl (iso-Pr), Phenyl (Ph).

Following is the list of some common functional groups:
Some functional groups

Family	Structure of functional group	Simplest example
Alkane	Containing only C - H and C - C (single bond)	CH ₄
Alkene	>C=C<	Ethene
Alkyne	$\text{-C}\equiv\text{C-}$	Ethyne
Arene		Benzene
Halide	$\begin{array}{c} \\ \text{-C-}\ddot{\text{X}} \\ \end{array}$ (X = F, Cl, Br, I)	Chloromethane
Alcohol	-C-O-H	Methanol
Ether	$\begin{array}{c} \\ \text{-C-O-C-} \\ \end{array}$	Dimethyl ether
Amine	$\begin{array}{c} \\ \text{-C-N-H, -C-N-} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{C} \quad \text{N} \\ \quad \end{array}$	Methylamine
Nitrile	$\begin{array}{c} \\ \text{-C-C}\equiv\text{N} \\ \end{array}$	Cyanide
Nitro	$\begin{array}{c} \quad + \quad \text{O} \\ \text{-C-N} \quad \diagup \quad \text{O} \\ \quad \quad \quad \diagdown \quad \text{O}^- \end{array}$	Nitromethane
Sulphide	$\begin{array}{c} \quad \\ \text{-C-S-C-} \\ \quad \end{array}$	Dimethyl sulphide
Sulphoxide	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O}^- \\ \uparrow \\ \begin{array}{c} \quad \\ \text{-C-S-C-} \\ \quad \end{array} \end{array}$	Methylsulphoxide

Year	Month	Day	Time	Location	Remarks
1900	Jan	1	10:00	San Francisco	Arrived from New York
1900	Jan	2	10:00	San Francisco	Left for Los Angeles
1900	Jan	3	10:00	Los Angeles	Arrived from San Francisco
1900	Jan	4	10:00	Los Angeles	Left for San Francisco
1900	Jan	5	10:00	San Francisco	Arrived from Los Angeles
1900	Jan	6	10:00	San Francisco	Left for Los Angeles
1900	Jan	7	10:00	Los Angeles	Arrived from San Francisco
1900	Jan	8	10:00	Los Angeles	Left for San Francisco
1900	Jan	9	10:00	San Francisco	Arrived from Los Angeles
1900	Jan	10	10:00	San Francisco	Left for Los Angeles
1900	Jan	11	10:00	Los Angeles	Arrived from San Francisco
1900	Jan	12	10:00	Los Angeles	Left for San Francisco
1900	Jan	13	10:00	San Francisco	Arrived from Los Angeles
1900	Jan	14	10:00	San Francisco	Left for Los Angeles
1900	Jan	15	10:00	Los Angeles	Arrived from San Francisco
1900	Jan	16	10:00	Los Angeles	Left for San Francisco
1900	Jan	17	10:00	San Francisco	Arrived from Los Angeles
1900	Jan	18	10:00	San Francisco	Left for Los Angeles
1900	Jan	19	10:00	Los Angeles	Arrived from San Francisco
1900	Jan	20	10:00	Los Angeles	Left for San Francisco
1900	Jan	21	10:00	San Francisco	Arrived from Los Angeles
1900	Jan	22	10:00	San Francisco	Left for Los Angeles
1900	Jan	23	10:00	Los Angeles	Arrived from San Francisco
1900	Jan	24	10:00	Los Angeles	Left for San Francisco
1900	Jan	25	10:00	San Francisco	Arrived from Los Angeles
1900	Jan	26	10:00	San Francisco	Left for Los Angeles
1900	Jan	27	10:00	Los Angeles	Arrived from San Francisco
1900	Jan	28	10:00	Los Angeles	Left for San Francisco
1900	Jan	29	10:00	San Francisco	Arrived from Los Angeles
1900	Jan	30	10:00	San Francisco	Left for Los Angeles
1900	Jan	31	10:00	Los Angeles	Arrived from San Francisco

HOMOLOGOUS SERIES

General Characteristics

- (1) C_nH_{2n+2}
- (2) C_nH_{2n}
- (3) C_nH_{2n-2}
- (4) C_nH_{2n-4}
- (5) C_nH_{2n-6}
- (6) C_nH_{2n-8}

QUICK QUIZ-4

(1) What are general formulas for alkanes, alkenes and alkynes?

Alkanes: C_nH_{2n+2}

(2) What are homologs?

A homologous series is a series of individual compounds.

(3) Why we arrange compounds in homologous series?

The large number of compounds

can be arranged in a series.

- All compounds in the series have the same functional group.
- All compounds in the series have the same general formula.
- There is a gradual variation in physical and chemical properties.

Exercise Q3 (e) Give the chemical tests for the detection of elements in organic compounds

DETECTION OF ELEMENTS IN ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

- Carbon is an essential constituent of all organic compounds
- Hydrogen is also present in almost all organic compounds
- Some organic compounds may contain Nitrogen, Sulphur, and Halogen. Oxygen, Phosphorus and M

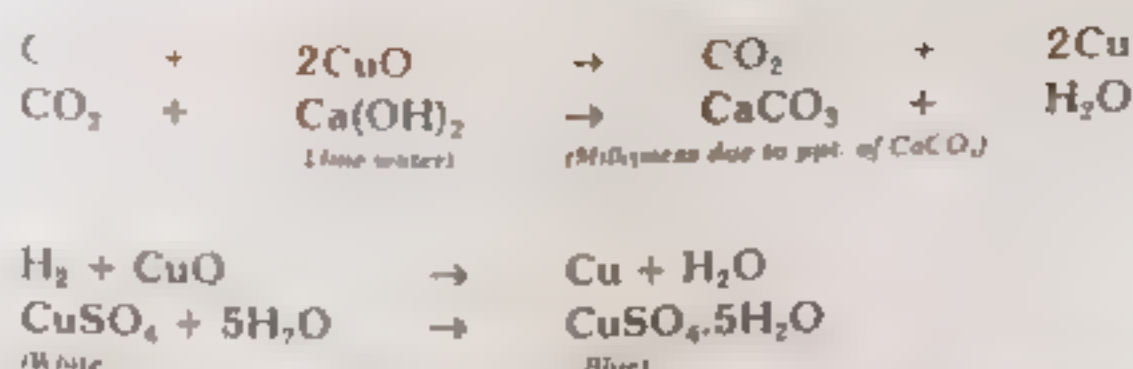
(A) DETECTION OF CARBON AND HYDROGEN:

Method

- A small amount of organic compound is heated with CuO in a glass test tube as shown in the figure
- On heating the mixture carbon and hydrogen are oxidized to CO_2 and H_2O respectively
- CO_2 turns lime water milky which proves the presence of carbon.
- The water test is done with anhydrous copper sulphate which



Reactions

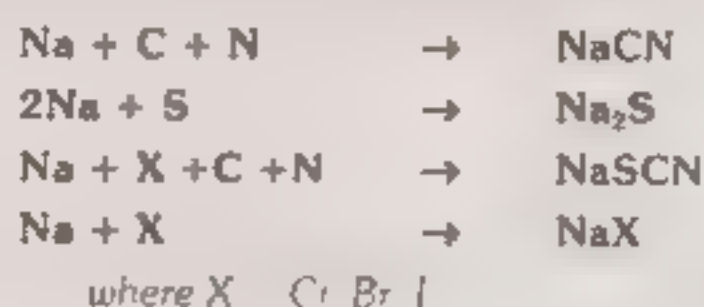


(B) DETECTION OF NITROGEN, SULPHUR AND HALOGENS

Preparation of Lassaigne's Solution Sodium Extract

- (1) Cut a small piece of sodium metal with the help of knife
- (2) Put this piece of sodium metal in a fusion tube
- (3) Heat the fusion tube in a flame to melt sodium metal.
- (4) When sodium metal is melted, then add a small amount of powdered organic compounds into fusion tube.
- (5) Then heat fusion tube to get a red hot mass.
- (6) Break this fusion tube into pieces and add 20cm³ of distilled water
- (7) Mix, boil and filter the solution
- (8) The filtrate obtained is called Lassaigne's solution or sodium extract
- (9) Divide this filtrate into three parts and test the presence of N, S and (X) halogens respectively

Reactions (Chemistry of Preparation of Lassaigne's solution):



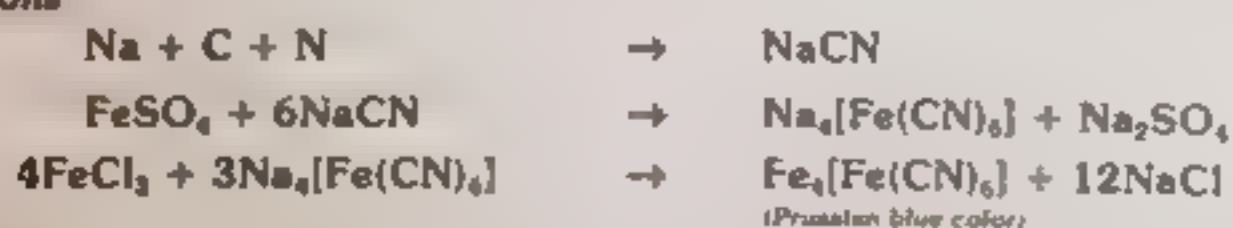
The tests for nitrogen, sulphur and halogens are performed with Lassaigne's filtrate

TEST FOR NITROGEN.

Method

- To one portion of Lassaigne's filtrate a few drops of NaOH is added to make it alkaline and then then freshly prepared ferrous sulphate (FeSO₄) solution is added to it
- The solution is boiled and a few drops of FeCl₃ solution and HCl are added to it
- The appearance of blue or greenish blue Prussian blue color or ppt proves the presence of nitrogen in the organic compound

Reactions



Note:

- If a blood red color is produced instead of Prussian blue color then it proves that nitrogen and sulphur are present in the organic compound

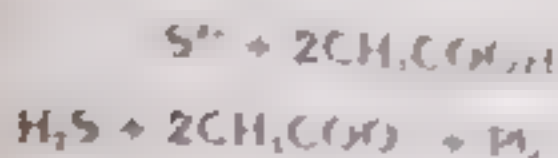


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- *Attract* /

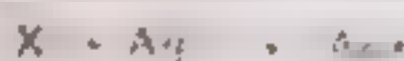
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TEST FOR HALOGENS.

Sodium Test

1. *...*
 2. *...*
 3. *...*
 4. *...*
 5. *...*
 6. *...*
 7. *...*
 8. *...*
 9. *...*
 10. *...*



DETECTION OF OXYGEN

- Traits
- Its process

1000

- *...*
- *...*
- *...*

Test 2

- The worded read (left), carbon and (right)
- If any of them

Page 3

- The sure test for is the given *contingency*
- If the sum of these part thus confirms

D) DETECTION OF PHAGE TITERS

- The solid substance is heated strongly, mixture of sodium carbonate at 500°C .
- The phosphorus present in the substance has been converted into sodium phosphate.
- The residue is extracted with water, boiled with water.
- Then a hot solution of ammonium molybdate is added to it in excess.
- A yellow coloration of precipitate indicated the presence of phosphorus.

1. DETECTION OF METALS

- ### DETECTION OF METALS
- The substance is strongly heated in a crucible preferably of platinum, till all res.
 - An incombustible residue indicated the presence of a metal in the substance
 - The residue is extracted with dilute acid and the solution is test for the presence of metal ion by the usual scheme employed for inorganic salts

SOCIETY, TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE

ORGANIC COMPOUNDS FROM PLANTS AND ANIMALS

-
-
-
-
-

DRUGS FROM PLANTS

Quinine

Nicotine

Menthol

Camphor

Aromatic compound

Rutin

Used for the treatment of

Hesperidin

Used for the treatment of

Curcumin

A choleretic obtained from

Cocaine

A local anaesthetic

Caffeine

A CNS stimulant obtained from

Bromelain

An anti-inflammatory agent

EXERCISE

1. Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

1. Which of the following is not a functional group?
 - (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$
 - (b) $\text{C}-\text{O}$
 - (c) $\text{C}-\text{N}$
 - (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$
2. Which of the following is not a functional group?
 - (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$
 - (b) $\text{C}-\text{O}$
 - (c) $\text{C}-\text{N}$
 - (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$
3. Which of the following is not a functional group?
 - (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$
 - (b) $\text{C}-\text{O}$
 - (c) $\text{C}-\text{N}$
 - (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$
4. Which of the following is not a functional group?
 - (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$
 - (b) $\text{C}-\text{O}$
 - (c) $\text{C}-\text{N}$
 - (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$
5. Which of the following is not a functional group?
 - (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$
 - (b) $\text{C}-\text{O}$
 - (c) $\text{C}-\text{N}$
 - (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$
6. Which of the following is not a functional group?
 - (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$
 - (b) $\text{C}-\text{O}$
 - (c) $\text{C}-\text{N}$
 - (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$
7. Which of the following is not a functional group?
 - (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$
 - (b) $\text{C}-\text{O}$
 - (c) $\text{C}-\text{N}$
 - (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$
8. Which of the following is not a functional group?
 - (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$
 - (b) $\text{C}-\text{O}$
 - (c) $\text{C}-\text{N}$
 - (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$
9. Which of the following is not a functional group?
 - (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$
 - (b) $\text{C}-\text{O}$
 - (c) $\text{C}-\text{N}$
 - (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$
10. Which of the following is not a functional group?
 - (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$
 - (b) $\text{C}-\text{O}$
 - (c) $\text{C}-\text{N}$
 - (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$ 2. (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$ 3. (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$ 4. (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$ 5. (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$ 6. (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$ 7. (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$ 8. (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$ 9. (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$ 10. (d) $\text{C}-\text{H}$

11. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 12. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 13. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 14. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 15. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 16. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 17. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 18. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 19. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 20. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$

21. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 22. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 23. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 24. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 25. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 26. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 27. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 28. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 29. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 30. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$

31. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 32. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 33. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 34. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 35. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 36. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 37. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 38. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 39. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 40. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$

41. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 42. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 43. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 44. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 45. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 46. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 47. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 48. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 49. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ 50. (a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$

Polystyrene $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_n$ is white. When it is exposed to UV light, it turns brown due to formation of

(a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ (b) Polysulfone (c) Polysilane (d) Polysilane

By definition a compound with more than one functional group is called a

(a) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ (b) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ (c) $\text{C}=\text{C}$ (d) $\text{C}=\text{C}$

Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

What is functional group?

A functional group is an atom or group of atoms in a molecule that gives it characteristic chemical properties.

A molecule can contain more than one functional group. It is then called a polyfunctional compound. The properties of each functional group may be modified by the presence of the others.

Examples: Double bond, triple bond, -Cl , -Br , -OH , -NH_2 groups etc.

What is the difference between partial and total synthesis of organic compounds?

The process in which compounds isolated from natural sources to produce other organic molecules are called partial synthesis. These are used as starting materials to produce other organic molecules.

The process in which an organic molecule is synthesized from small and simple molecules is called total synthesis.

How organic compounds are derived by fermentation process?

Fermentation is defined as the production of chemicals by the action of micro-organisms.

By employing appropriate organism hosts of useful substances are produced like vitamins and antibiotics.

(iv) What is coal? How is coal used as source of organic compounds?

(v) What is name of new allotropic form of carbon? Give its definition?

In 1985 a new group of allotropic forms of carbon was discovered called Buckminsterfullerene.

These have carbon atoms ranging from forty to hundred. The carbon atoms form a cage like structure. They are called Bucky Balls.

(vi) What is Homologous series?

A homologous series is a series of compound in which adjacent members differ by a CH_2 unit. The individual members are called Homologs.

Example:

Alcohol series. Its general formula is ROH or $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+1}\text{OH}$

The homologous series of alcohols can be represented as

n	R	Formula
1	CH_3-	CH_3OH
2	CH_3CH_2-	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$

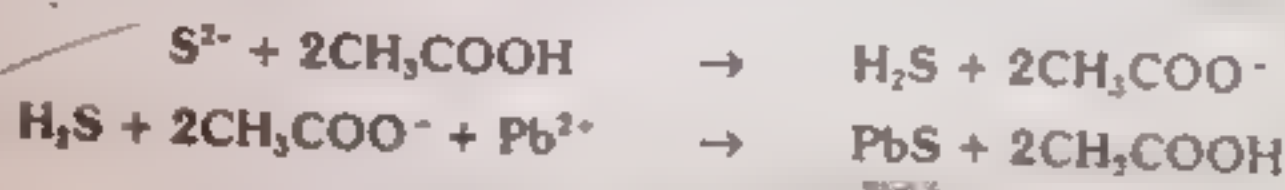
(vii) How sulphur can be detected in organic compounds?

Lassaigne's filtrate is prepared and acidified with acetic acid.

The solution is boiled to expel H_2S gas.

The H_2S gas turns lead acetate paper black that indicates the presence of sulphur.

Reactions



Q1: Give detailed answers for the following questions.

(i) What are the main sources of organic compounds?

See Page 110

(ii) Write down the characteristics of organic compound from inorganic compounds

See Page 113

(iii) How organic compounds are used in our daily life?

See Page 113

(iv) Write down any ten functional groups of organic compounds? Give reasons for their

See Page 116

(v) Give the chemical tests for the detection of elements in organic compounds

See Page 119

Section - C

Note: Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. (2 × 13 = 26)

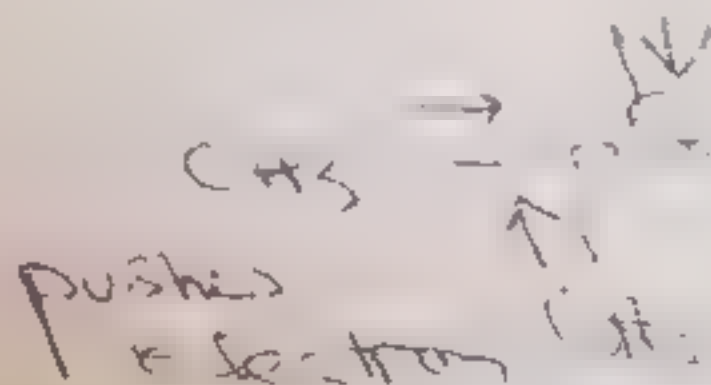
- Q 3 a Define tertiary alcohol & give examples.
 b Explain tertiary carbocation.
 c What are alkyl groups & tertiary carbocation?
- Q 4 a Define tertiary carbocation & give examples.
 b Propose a mechanism for the formation of tertiary carbocation.
 c Give names of primary, secondary, tertiary & quaternary carbocations.
- Q 5 a Differentiate tertiary & secondary alcohols & give examples.
 b How carbocation is formed in tertiary alcohols?
 c Give the order of reactivity of tertiary carbocations.
 d What point is tertiary carbocation?

* Alkyl Groups are electron donating.

* Tertiary carbocation is more reactive.

→ The alcohol whose carbon cation is stable, is more reactive.

* Tertiary carbon atom CH_3



CHAPTER # 16

HYDROCARBONS

Definition

The ability of carbon atoms to bond with each other to form a long chain is called catenation. Thus carbon has the ability to form a long chain.

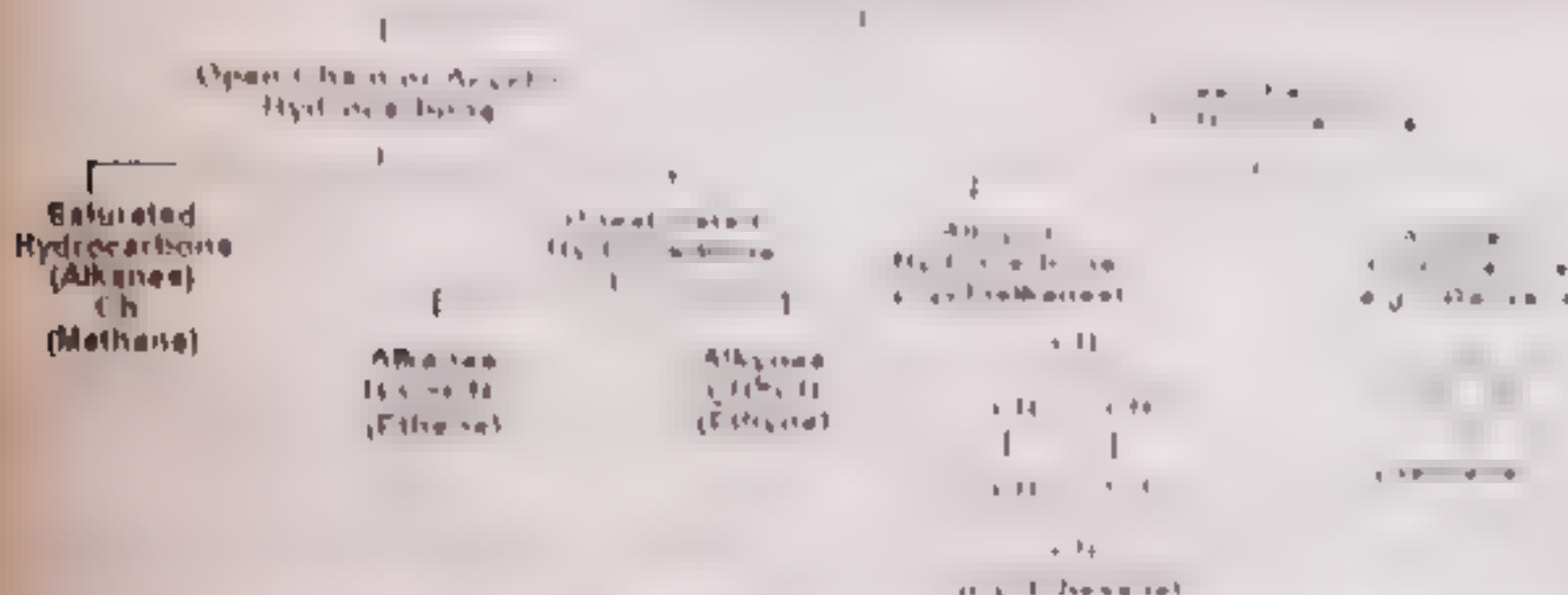
Hydrocarbons

Organic compounds which contain only carbon and hydrogen are called hydrocarbons.

TYPES OF HYDROCARBONS

The hydrocarbons are of two types:

HYDROCARBONS



OPEN CHAIN HYDROCARBONS

The hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms are linked with each other in a continuous chain are called open chain hydrocarbons.

TYPES OF OPEN CHAIN HYDROCARBONS

These are of two types:

- (1) Saturated hydrocarbons, C_nH_{2n+2}
- (2) Unsaturated hydrocarbons, C_nH_{2n} and C_nH_{2n-2}

1) SATURATED HYDROCARBONS

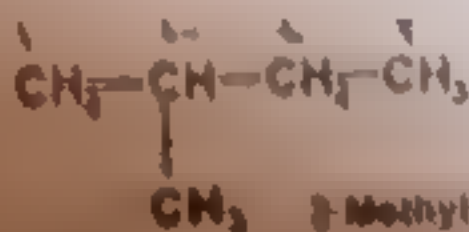
These are the hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms are linked with each other in a continuous chain.

- Each carbon atom is sp^3 hybridized (e.g. Alkanes).
- These may have a straight chain or a branched chain.
- No further atoms or groups of atoms can be attached to the carbon atom. Hence they are called saturated hydrocarbons.

Examples:



n-Pentane (a straight chain alkane)



2-Methylbutane (a branched alkane)

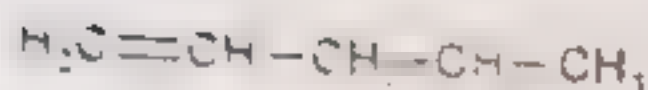
ALKENES AND ALKYNES

These are the unsaturated hydrocarbons in which at least two carbon atoms are attached through double or triple bonds respectively. Alkenes and alkynes.

ALKENES

These are the unsaturated hydrocarbons in which at least two carbon atoms are sp^2 hybridised and are attached to each other.

They can be straight chain or branched chain.



1-Pentene (straight chain alkene)

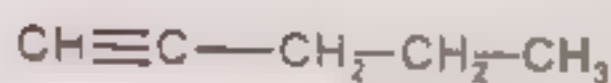


2-Methyl-1-butene

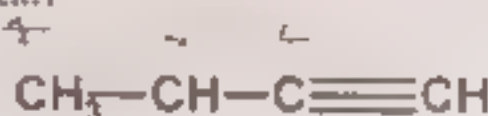
(ii) Alkynes or Acetylenes:

These are the unsaturated hydrocarbons in which at least two carbon atoms are sp hybridised and are attached to each other through a triple bond.

They can be straight chain or branched chain.



1-Pentyne (straight chain alkyne)



3-Methyl-1-butyne

CLOSED CHAIN HYDROCARBONS:

These are the hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms attach with each other to form rings.

TYPES OF CLOSED CHAIN HYDROCARBONS:

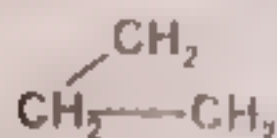
There are two types:

1. Alicyclic Hydrocarbons
2. Aromatic Hydrocarbons

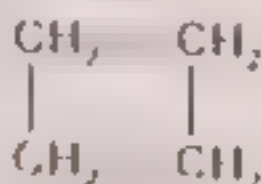
(1) ALICYCLIC HYDROCARBONS

Non-benzenoid cyclic hydrocarbons are alicyclic hydrocarbons.

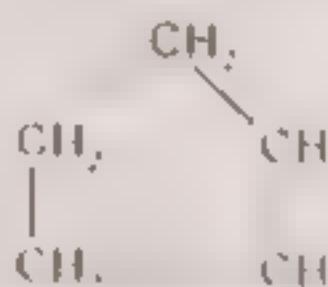
Alicyclic hydrocarbons possess two hydrogen atoms less than their corresponding open chain hydrocarbons.



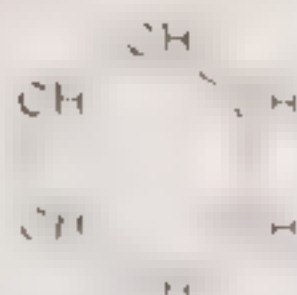
Cyclopropane



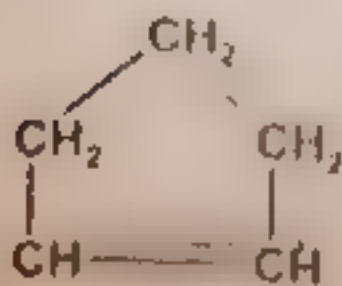
Cyclobutane



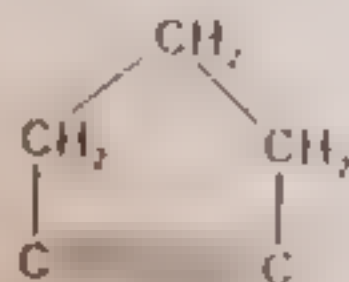
Cyclopentane



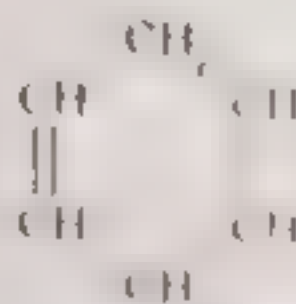
Cyclohexane



Cyclopentene



Cyclopentadiene

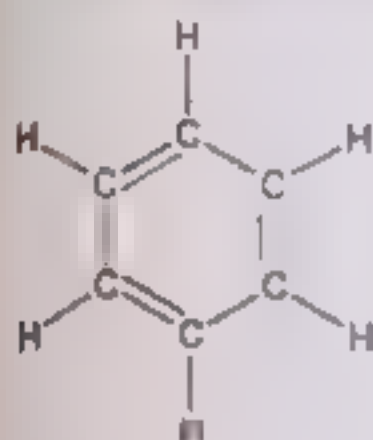


Cyclopentadiene

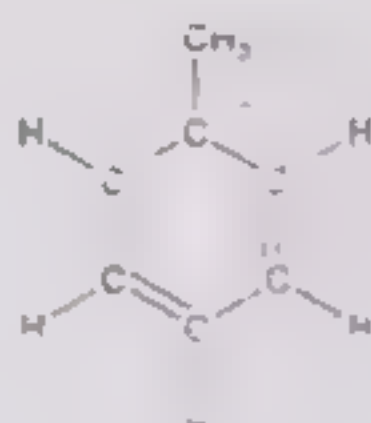
AROMATIC HYDROCARBONS

Benzenoid cyclic hydrocarbons are known as aromatic hydrocarbons

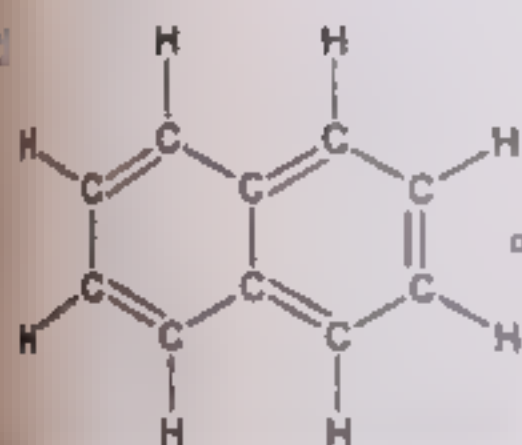
- In these compounds, carbon atoms are arranged in a ring and each carbon atom is bonded to one hydrogen atom.
- Benzene is the simplest aromatic hydrocarbon and has the molecular formula C_6H_6 .



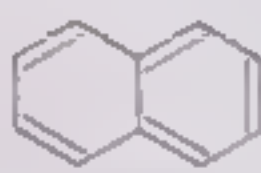
or



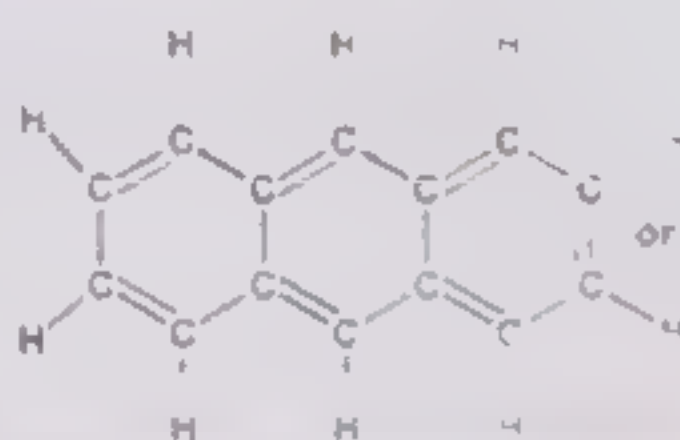
C-



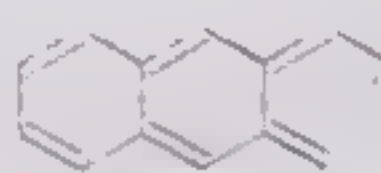
or



Naphthalene



or



QUICK QUIZ-1

1) What is catenation?

The ability of carbon atoms to attach with each other to form long chains.

Thus carbon has the ability to form long chains, multiple bonds and

e.g. $H_3C-CH_2-CH_2-CH_2-CH_2-CH_2-CH_2-CH_3$ (n-Octane)

2) What are hydrocarbons?

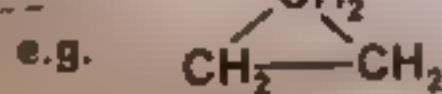
Organic compounds which contain carbon and hydrogen only.

These are of mainly two types

- The hydrocarbons, in which carbon atoms attached with each other to form a chain hydrocarbons

e.g. $H_3C-CH_2-CH_2-CH_2-CH_2-CH_2-CH_2-CH_3$ (n-Octane)

- The hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms attach with each other to form a ring hydrocarbons.



Cyclopropane

3) Why saturated hydrocarbons are called paraffins

Aliphatic saturated hydrocarbons called alkanes are highly unreactive. Hence the name

(Latin Parum = little + affinis = affinity) It means little reactivity

The unreactivity of alkanes is due to the inertness of a σ -bond and non-polar C-H bonds.

Examples: Methane, ethane etc

CH 16: Hydrocarbons

(4) Why unsaturated hydrocarbons are called olefins

Aliphatic unsaturated hydrocarbons having double bond are called Olefins. These are also called olefins (Latin: *oleum* = oil + *facere* = to make). It means oil forming substances. This term is used because lower members of this class, e.g. ethene form oily liquids on reaction with Cl_2 gas.

(5) What is hybridization

The process in which atomic orbitals of different energy and shape are mixed together to form a set of equivalent orbitals of same energy and same shape is called hybridization.

- The new orbitals formed are called hybrid orbitals.
- The concept of hybridization is used to explain number of covalent bonds, bond angles etc. of covalent molecules.
- There are various types of hybridization depending upon the number and nature of orbitals taking part in hybridization e.g., sp^3 , sp^2 , sp , dsp^2 , dsp^3 , d^2sp^3 etc.

(6) Why benzene is called aromatic hydrocarbons

- The term aromatic is derived from Greek word *aroma* meaning fragrance.
- Initially this term was used for such compounds which contain low hydrogen to carbon ratio, shows high chemical stability and have characteristic smell. However, later on many stable compounds of this type were found odourless. Thus term 'aromatic' became associated with chemical stability of compound instead of odour.
- Since, benzene has low hydrogen to carbon ratio and shows high chemical stability, so it is called aromatic hydrocarbon.

(7) What is hexagonal structure?

A regular hexagonal structure has six equal faces and all angles of 120° .

e.g. benzene has hexagonal planar structure in which all carbon and hydrogen atoms are present in the same plane. All the angles are of 120° . All C - C bond lengths are equal (1.397 Å). Similarly all C - H bond lengths are also equal (1.09 Å).



ALKANES AND CYCLOALKANES

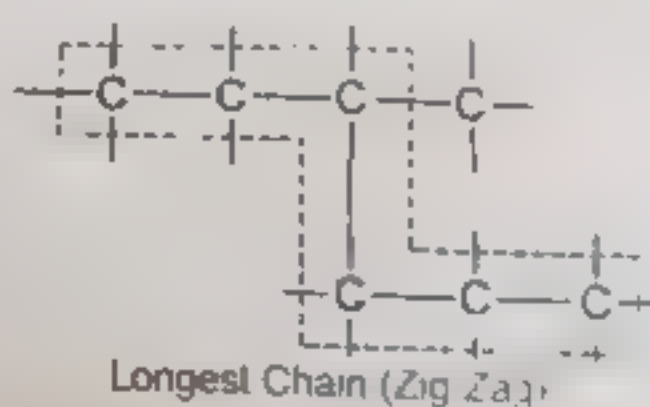
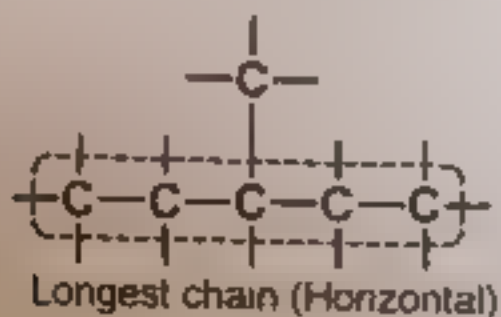
ALKANES

Acyclic saturated hydrocarbons are called alkanes

- These are simplest organic molecules with only C and H atoms.
- Their general formula is $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$.
- These are commercially important as fuels and oils.

I.U.P.A.C. NOMENCLATURE OF ALKANES:

(1) Locate the largest continuous chain of carbon atoms independent of direction of the chain. It is called main chain, stem, principal chain or parent chain.



1.6 Hydrocarbon

101

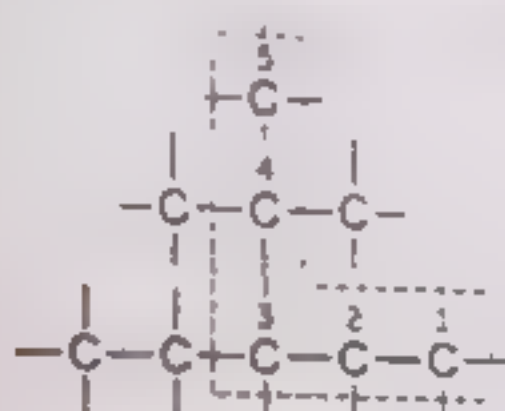
- (2) If there are two, it is a branch



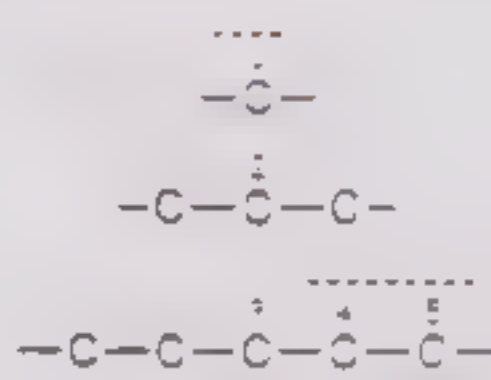
One branch (Not main chain)



- (3) Number the main chain starting from the end nearest to the most branching

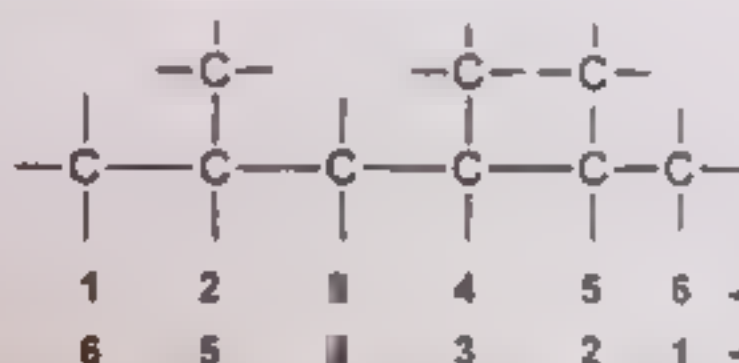


Incorrect



Correct

- (4) When two identical substituents are present at equal distance from both ends, number from the end which gives their minimum sum

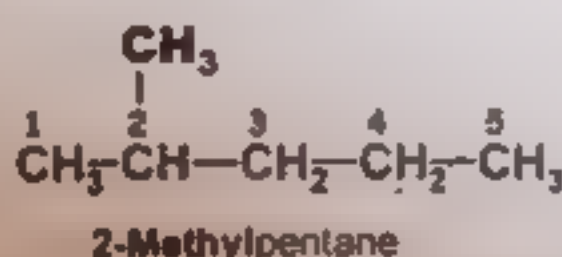


Wrong number

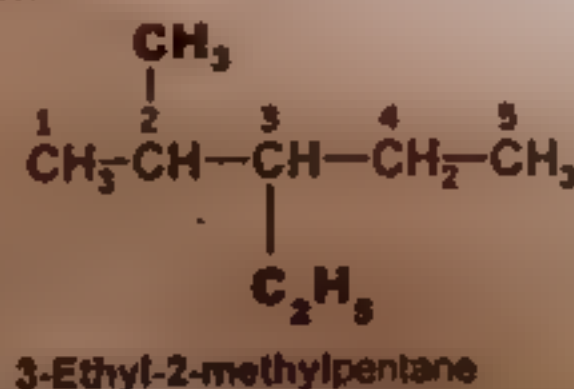
Correct number

Since the sum of number $2+3+5=10$, is less than $2+4+5=11$ the correct number is 2, 3, 5

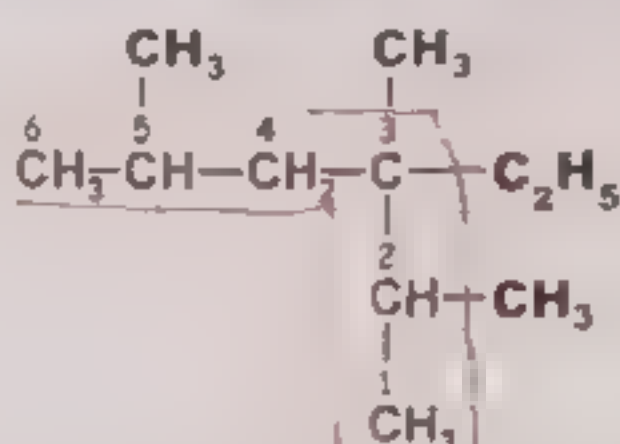
- (5) The position of substituent is indicated by the number of C-atom to which it is attached, prefixed to the name of group separated by hyphen



- (6) Names of alkyl groups are written before the name of parent hydrocarbon in alphabetical order of increasing size, separated by hyphen.

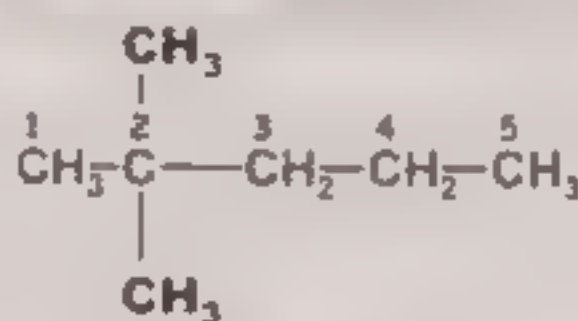


- (7) When two or more functional groups are present, their numbers are indicated by prefixes 1, 2, 3, etc. The numbers are written together and are separated by commas.



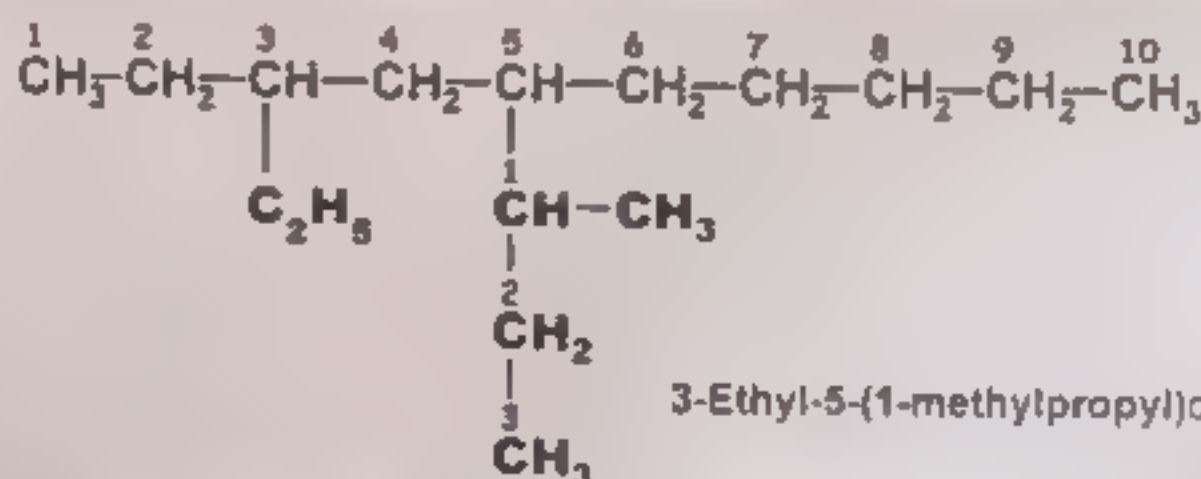
3-Ethyl-2,3,5-trimethylhexane

- (8) If two identical groups appear at the same carbon, the number is separated twice, separated by commas.



2,2-Dimethylpentane

- (9) The longest chain of the substituent is numbered starting with the carbon attached directly to the main chain. Parentheses are used to separate the numbering of the substituent and the main chain.

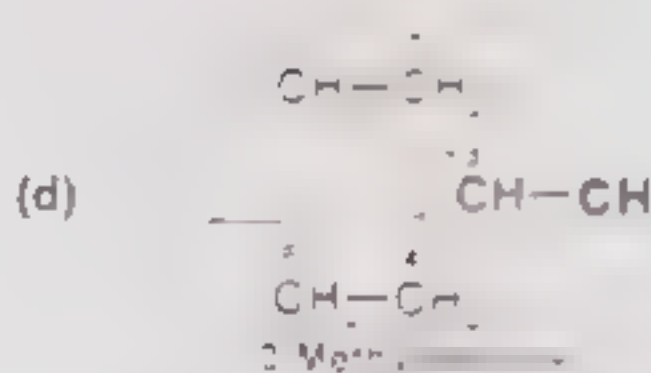
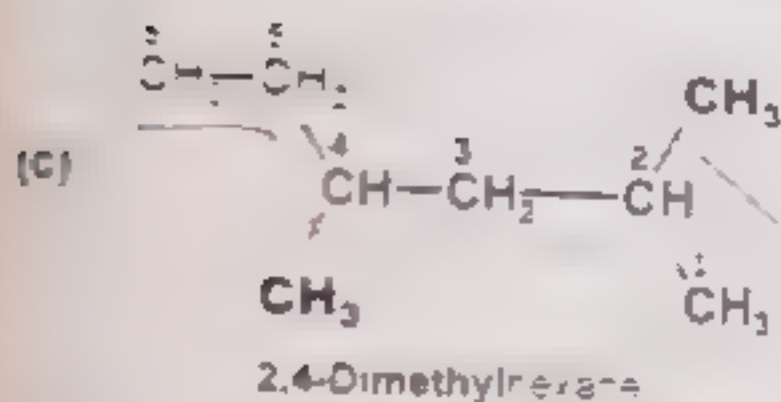
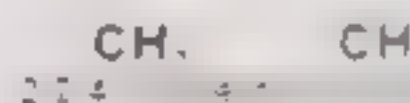
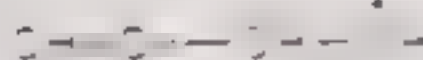
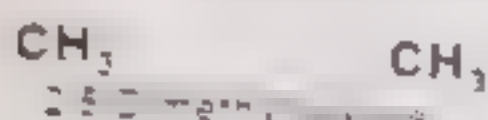
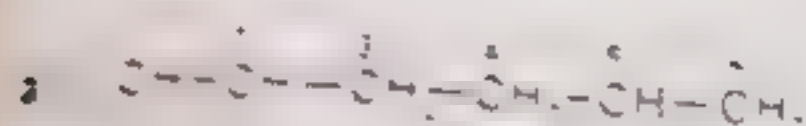


3-Ethyl-5-(1-methylpropyl)decane

The structural formula and names for the simple alkanes are shown in the following table.

Number of Carbon atoms	Formula	Line drawing	Alkane Name
1	CH_4 or	Not applicable (N.A.)	Methane
2	C_2H_6 or $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_3$		Ethane
3	C_3H_8 or $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_3$		Propane
4	C_4H_{10} or $\text{CH}_3 - (\text{CH}_2)_2 - \text{CH}_3$		Butane
5	C_5H_{12} or $\text{CH}_3 - (\text{CH}_2)_3 - \text{CH}_3$		Pentane
6	C_6H_{14} or $\text{CH}_3 - (\text{CH}_2)_4 - \text{CH}_3$		Hexane
7	C_7H_{16} or $\text{CH}_3 - (\text{CH}_2)_5 - \text{CH}_3$		Heptane
8	C_8H_{18} or $\text{CH}_3 - (\text{CH}_2)_6 - \text{CH}_3$		Octane
9	C_9H_{20} or $\text{CH}_3 - (\text{CH}_2)_7 - \text{CH}_3$		Nonane
10	$\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{22}$ or $\text{CH}_3 - (\text{CH}_2)_8 - \text{CH}_3$		Decane

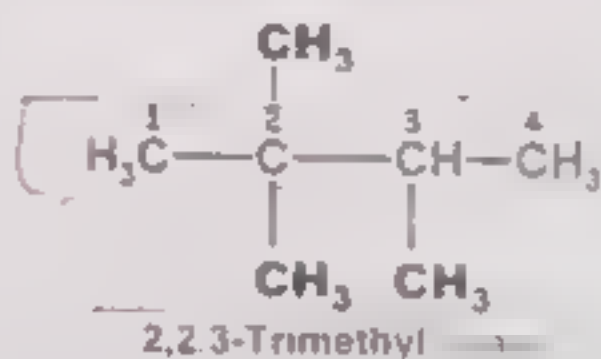
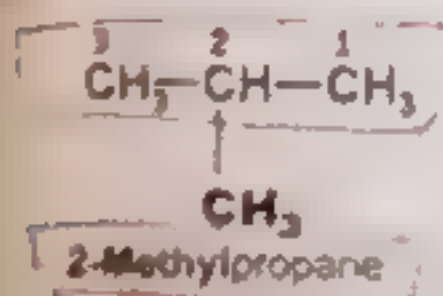
ACTIVITY



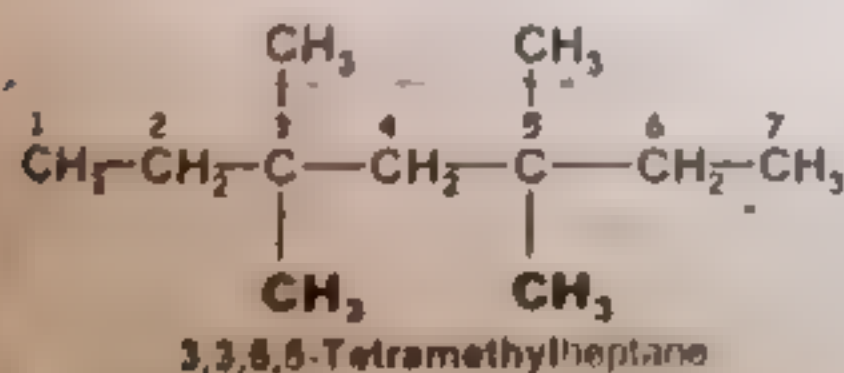
Indicate what is wrong with each of the following names. Give the correct IUPAC names if possible.

a) 2-Dimethyl Propane

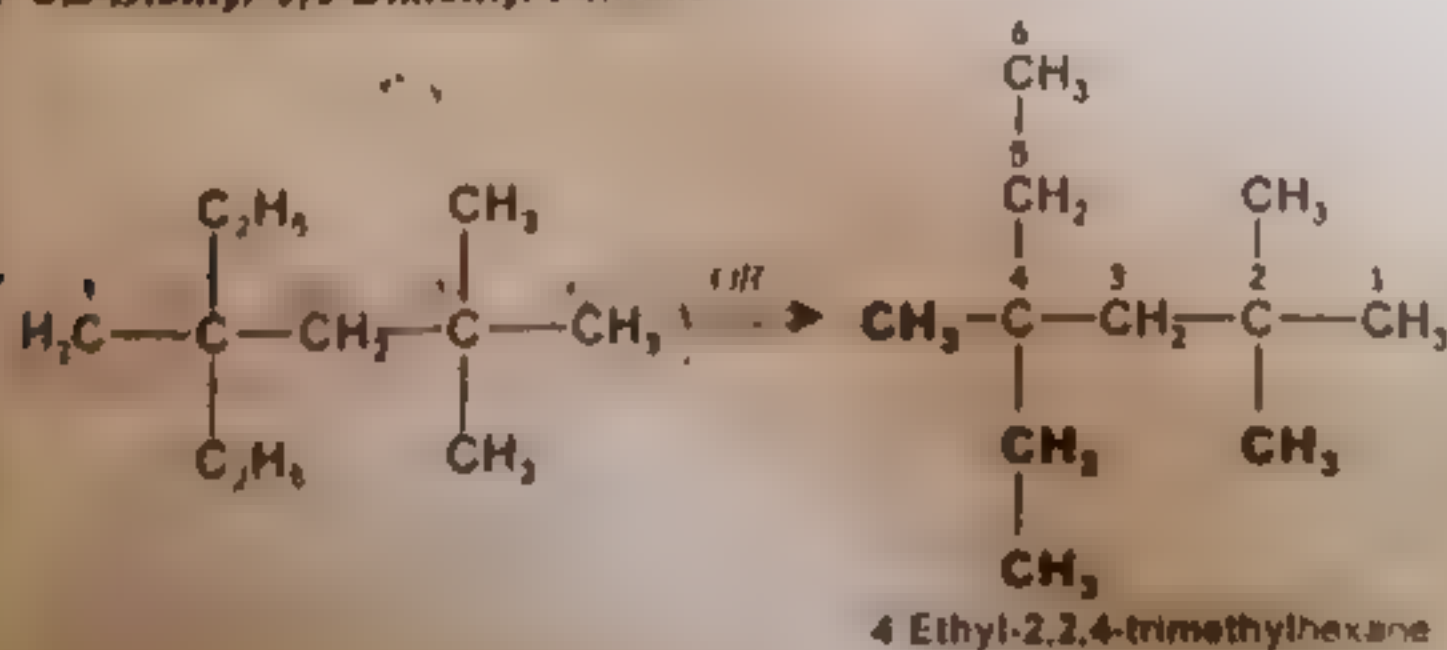
b) 2,2,3-Methyl Butane

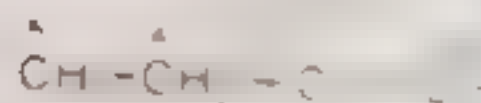
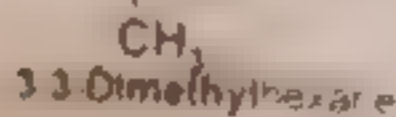
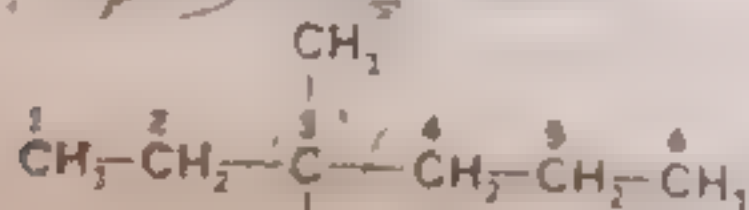
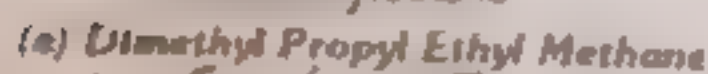
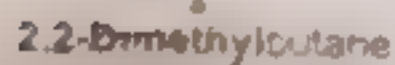
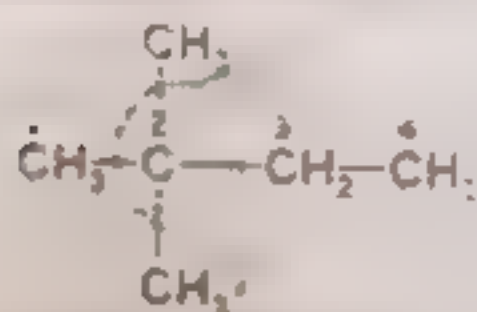
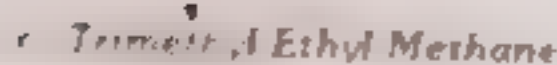
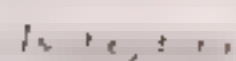
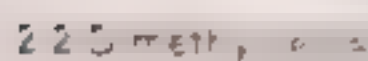
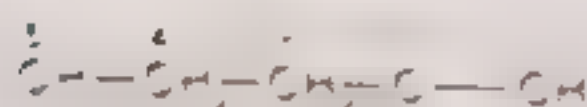
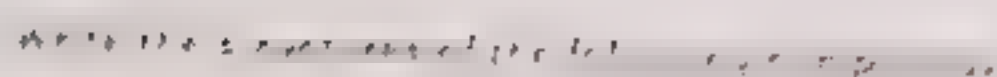
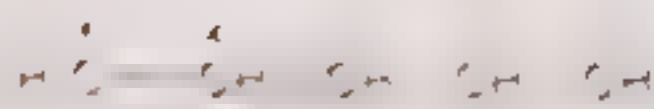
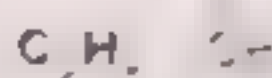
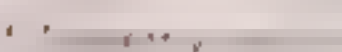
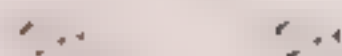
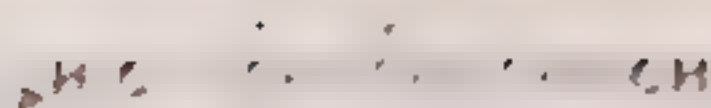


(c) 3,3-Dimethyl-5,5-Dimethyl Heptane

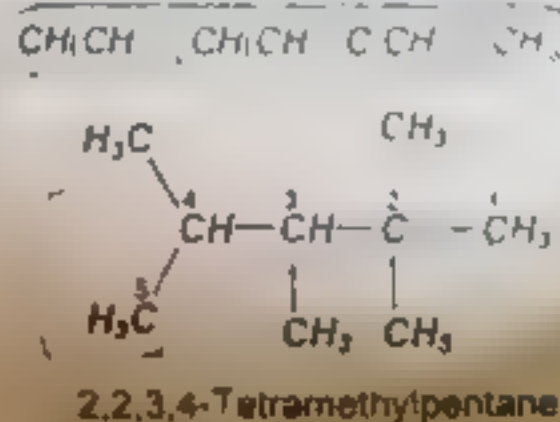
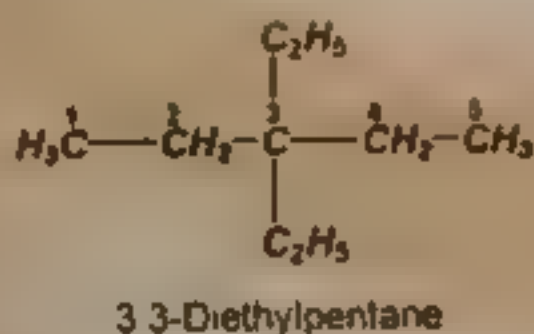
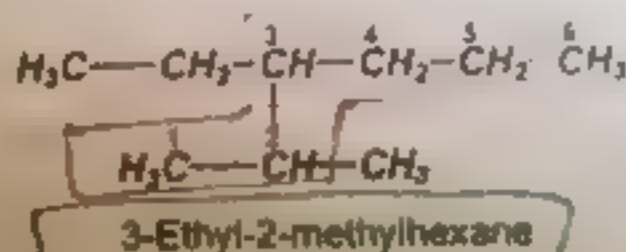
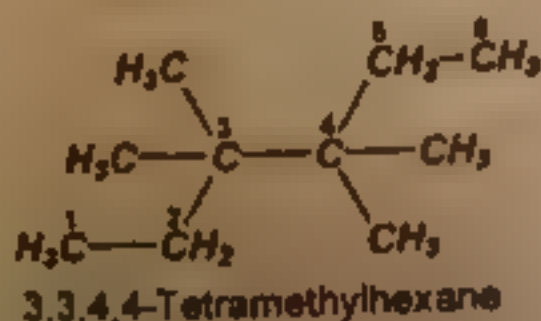
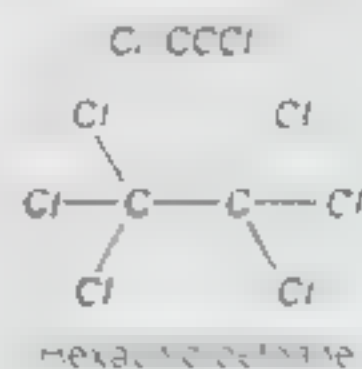
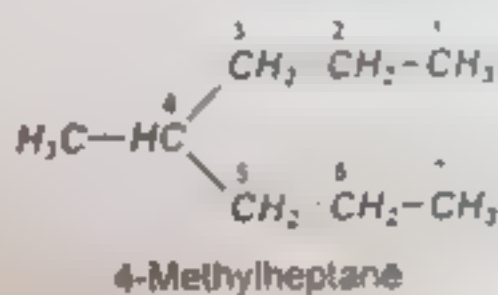
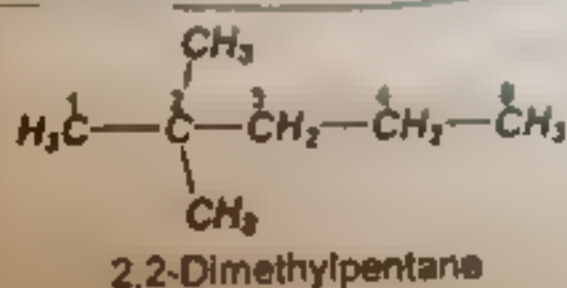
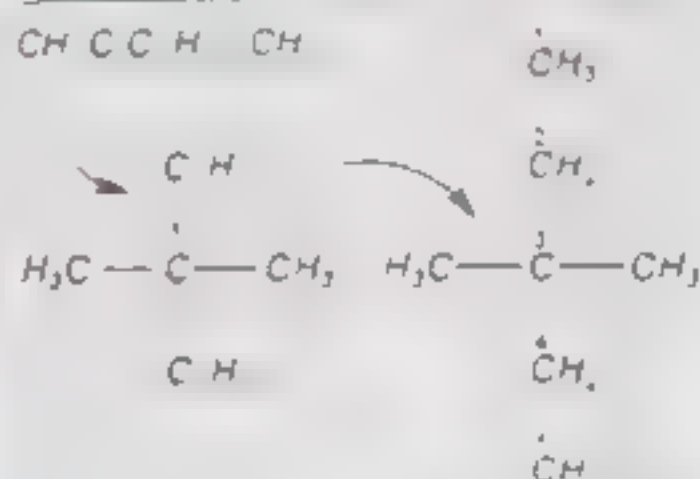
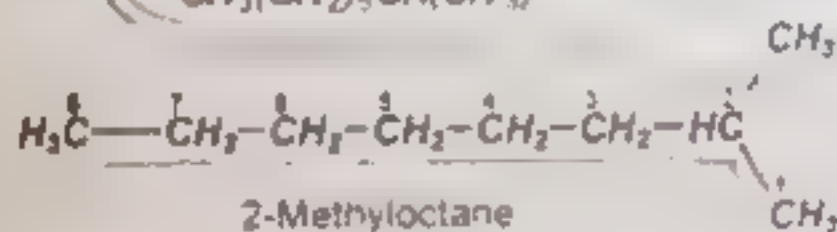
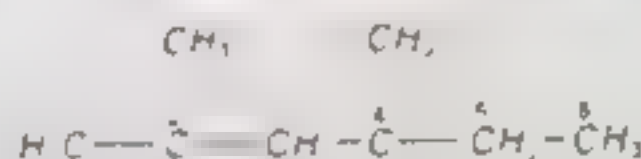
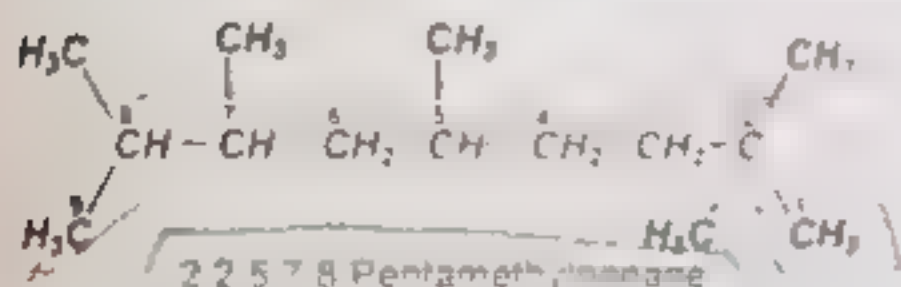
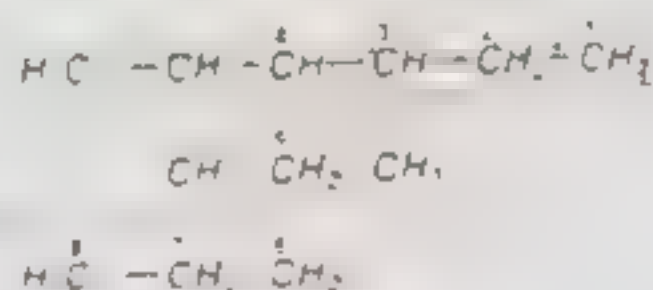
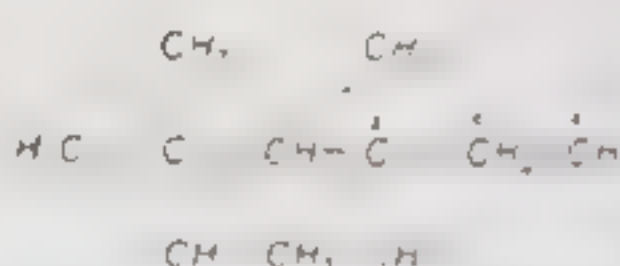
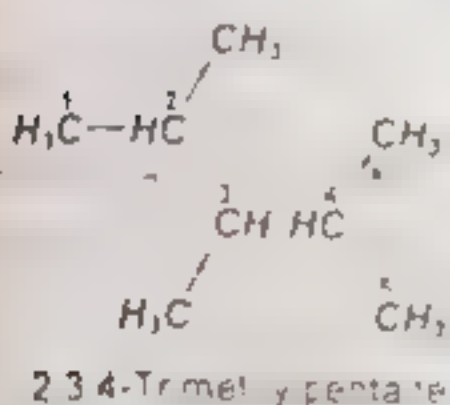
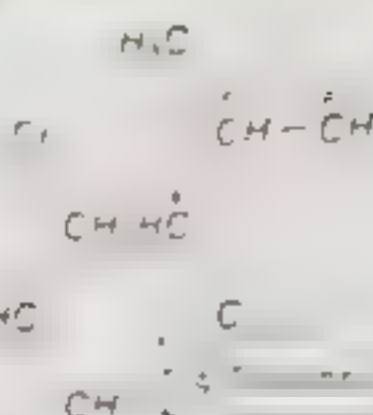
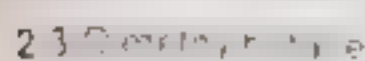


(d) 2,2-Diethyl-4,4-Dimethyl Pentane





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PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

QUICK NOTE

Effect of branching on boiling point of alkanes

Effect of branching on boiling point of alkanes

STRUCTURE

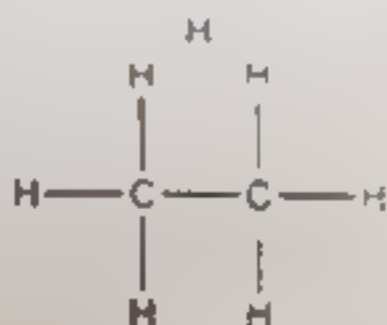
Normal Alkanes

- Alkanes are the simplest of all organic compounds.
- They have a general formula C_nH_{2n+2} where n is the number of carbon atoms present for a given alkane.
- Structures of the first four alkanes are given below.
- As the number of carbon atoms increases, the boiling point of the alkane increases.

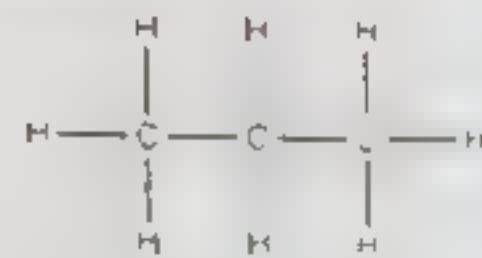
Methane
 CH_4
(b.pt = $-160^\circ C$)



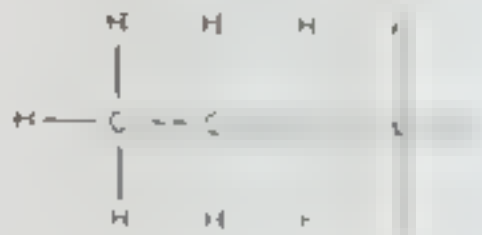
Ethane
 C_2H_6
(b.pt = $-89^\circ C$)



Propane
 C_3H_8
(b.pt = $-42^\circ C$)



Ethane
 C_2H_6
(b.pt = $-89^\circ C$)



Isomeric Alkanes:

- The molecular formula for the C_4H_{10} alkanes is C_4H_{10} .
- However for C_4H_{10} there are two possible constitutional isomers.
- The isomers have different chemical and physical properties.

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Page 18

Page 19

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(4) Non-polar Bonds:

- The ionization potential of carbon (2.5) and hydrogen (2.1) do not differ appreciably. Therefore, the bonding electrons are shared equally and C-H bonds are non-polar. The non-polar nature of C-H bonds, which are the only bonds in alkanes, makes them inert towards electrophilic reagents, such as acids, alkalies, oxidizing agents, etc. and no place in the alkane molecules for reaction.
- However, under suitable conditions, alkanes give two types of reactions:
 - Free radical Substitution Reaction
 - Substituted Reaction
- The reaction of alkanes at high temperature (above 500°C) or in the presence of highly reactive free radicals.

CYCLOALKANES

Another type of molecule containing only sp^3 hybridized C and H atoms, connected by σ bonds is possible with ring of 3 or more C atoms. These are the cycloalkanes. These are both synthetic and natural.

NOMENCLATURE:

- According to IUPAC system, cycloalkanes with one ring are named by prefixing cyclo to the name of the corresponding alkane having the same number of carbon atoms as the ring.

Examples:



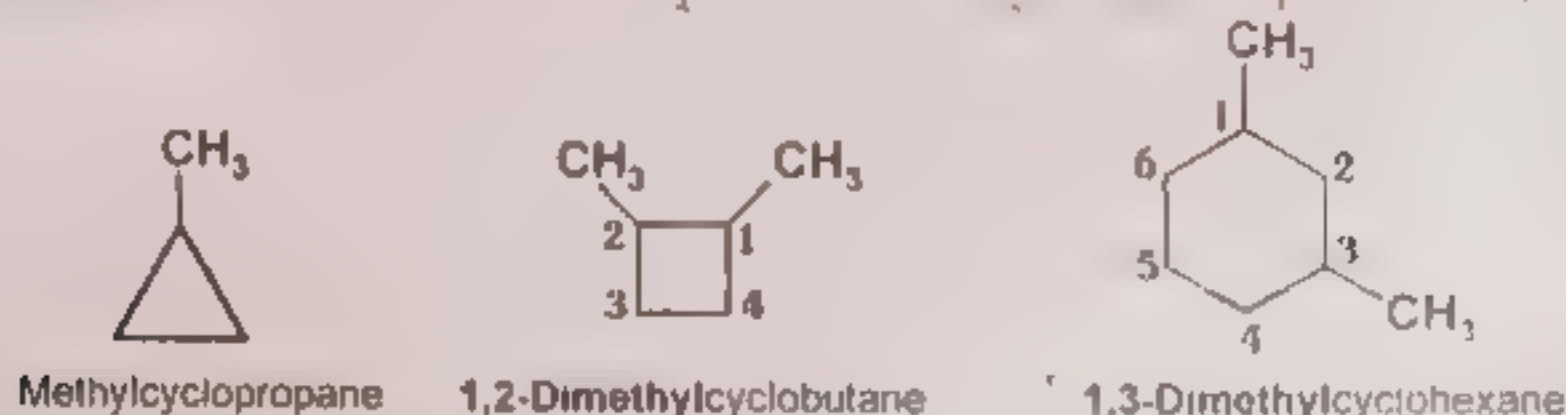
Cyclopropane

Cyclobutane

Cyclopentane

Cyclohexane

- The substituents are numbered in such a way that the sum of numbers is kept minimum, e.g.



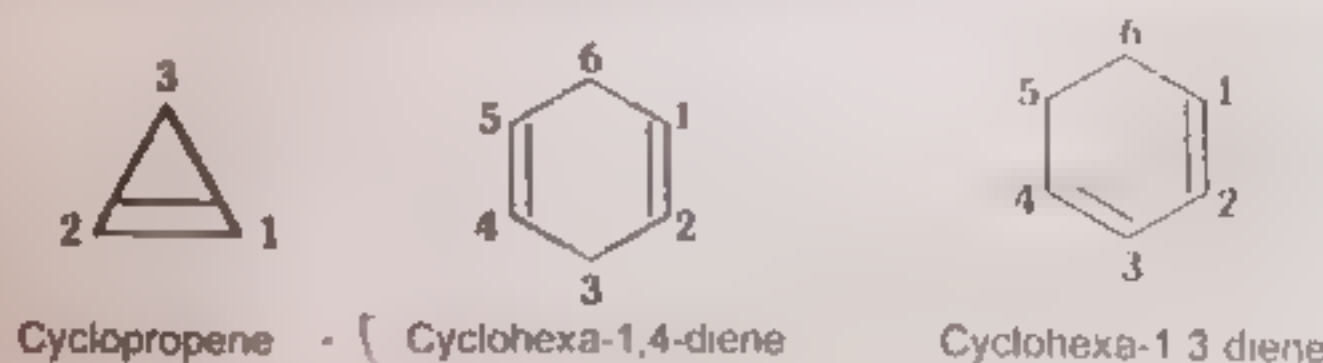
Methylcyclopropane

1,2-Dimethylcyclobutane

1,3-Dimethylcyclohexane

- If the bicyclic hydrocarbon is unsaturated, the rules applied to alkenes and alkynes (multiple bonds are given the lowest possible number) are used. Multiple bonds are given the lowest possible number.

Examples:



Cyclopropene

Cyclohexa-1,4-diene




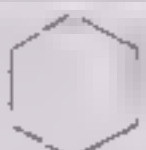
Cyclohexa-1,3-diene

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES:

- Cycloalkanes have low polarity. Thus the only intermolecular forces (other than London forces) are the very weak induced dipole-induced dipole forces, also known as London forces.
- These forces can be easily overcome. As a result, compared to other functional groups, butane, etc., cycloalkanes tend to have low melting and boiling points.

STRUCTURE:

- They have a generic formula of C_nH_{2n} . Thus, these have two less H atoms than alkanes.
- These are isomers of alkenes.
- They have sp^3 -hybridized carbon atoms.

Cyclopropane	C_3H_6	
Cyclobutane	C_4H_8	
Cyclopentane	C_5H_{10}	
Cyclohexane	C_6H_{12}	

ACTIVITY:

- The reactivity is very similar to the closely related alkanes which have the same sp^3 hybridized carbon atoms.
- Since C and H atoms have very similar electronegativities, so both C and H atoms are not very electronegative.
- As a result, cycloalkanes, like alkanes, are not a very reactive group of compounds.

QUICK QUIZ-2

What are polar, non-polar and weakly polar compounds?

Polar Compounds

The compounds in which electron density is unsymmetrical are called polar compounds.

In such compounds, electron density is more present on one side than other. Hence, positive and negative centers are developed within a molecule. e.g. water, methanol, CH_3OH .

Non-Polar Compounds

The compounds in which electron density is symmetrical are called non-polar compounds.

In such compounds, electron density is uniformly distributed throughout the molecule. Hence, positive and negative centers are not developed within a molecule e.g. carbon tetrachloride, CCl_4 .

Weakly**Polar Compounds**

The compounds in which electron density is slightly unsymmetrical are called weakly polar compounds.

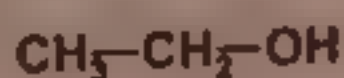
In such compounds, electron density is slightly more present on one side than other. Hence, positive and negative centers are developed within a molecule e.g. acetone etc.

What are isomers?

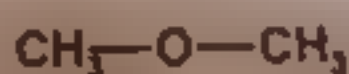
The compounds having same molecular formula but different structures and properties are called isomers. The phenomenon is called isomerism.

Example:

Ethanol and dimethyl ether are isomers of each other. Both have molecular formula C_2H_6O . They have different structures and properties.



(Ethanol)



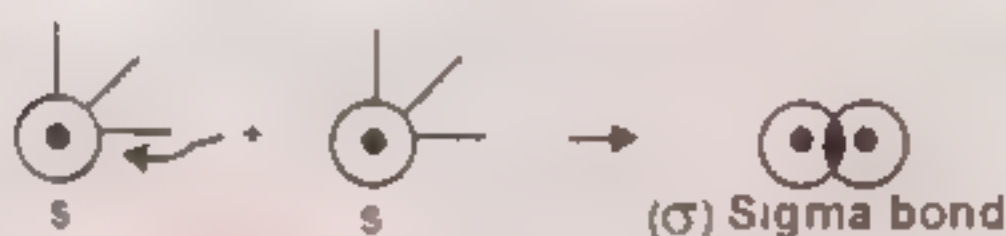
(Dimethyl ether)

What are inert compounds?

The compounds which do not react under certain conditions are called inert compounds.

4 What is a sigma bond?

Example



5 What are intramolecular and intermolecular forces?

- The forces of attraction between atoms or molecules are called intramolecular and intermolecular forces.

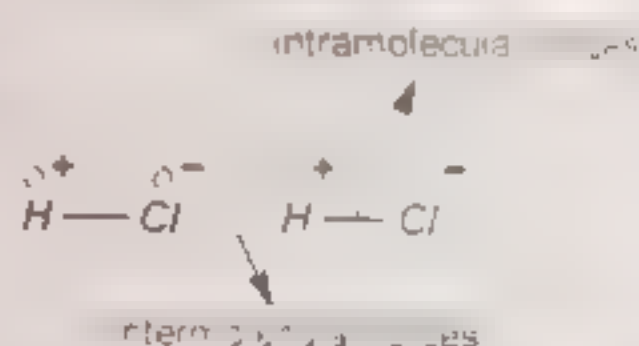
Examples

- The forces of attractions between atoms within a molecule are called intramolecular forces.

Examples:

Chemical bonds i.e. ionic bond, covalent bond, coordinate bond.

- Intramolecular forces are stronger than intermolecular forces.



HOW TO DESCRIBE REACTION MECHANISM

- When reaction mechanisms are being described, a 'curly arrow' is sometimes used to show the movement of a pair of electrons.
- The beginning of the arrow shows where the electron pair starts from and the arrow head shows where the pair ends up e.g.



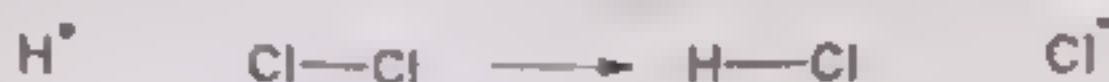
- The arrows show that a pair of electrons is moving from the Br⁻ ion to the region between the carbon. Thus a covalent bond is formed between the atoms.

The same reaction is shown again below, with all the bonding electrons indicated.

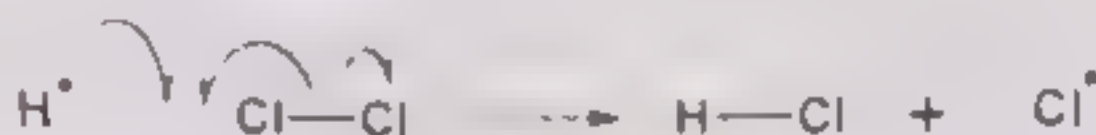


A half arrow is used to show the movement of a single electron in reactions involving free radicals.

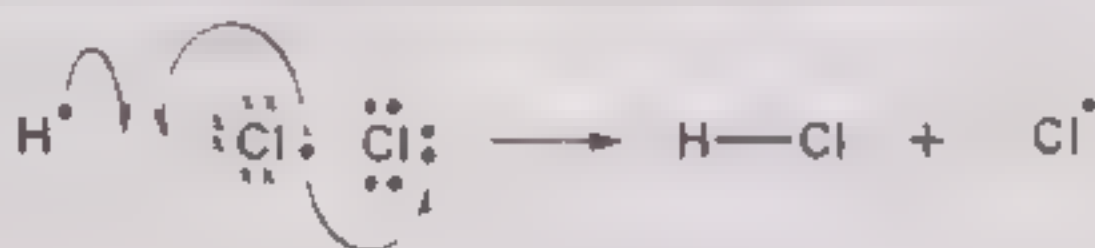
The beginning of the arrow shows where the single electron starts from and the half arrow head shows where it ends up. e.g.,



It can be shown as



This is shown again below with the lone pairs on the chlorine atoms.



Summary of the way curly arrows and half-arrows are used

(1) Curly arrows show the movement of an electron pair.

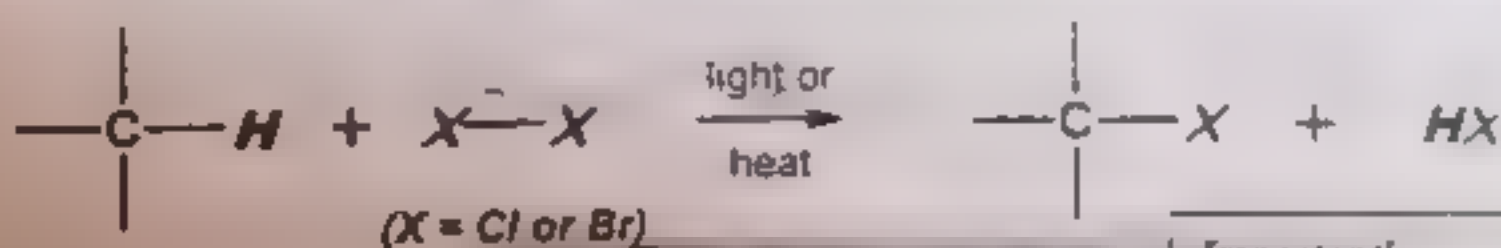
Electron pair starts here ... finished here

(2) Curly half arrows show the movement of a single unpaired electron.

Electron pair starts here ... finished here

RADICAL SUBSTITUTION REACTIONS

The substitution of hydrogen of an alkane molecule by a halogen atom takes place as follows:

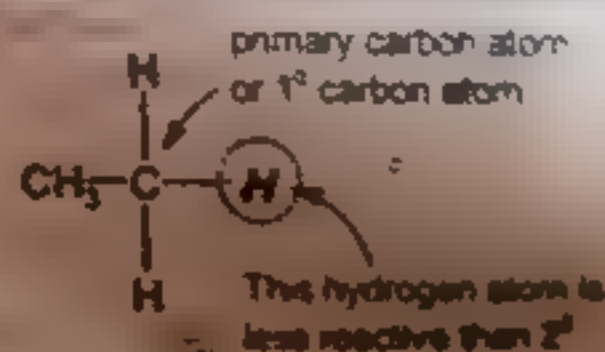
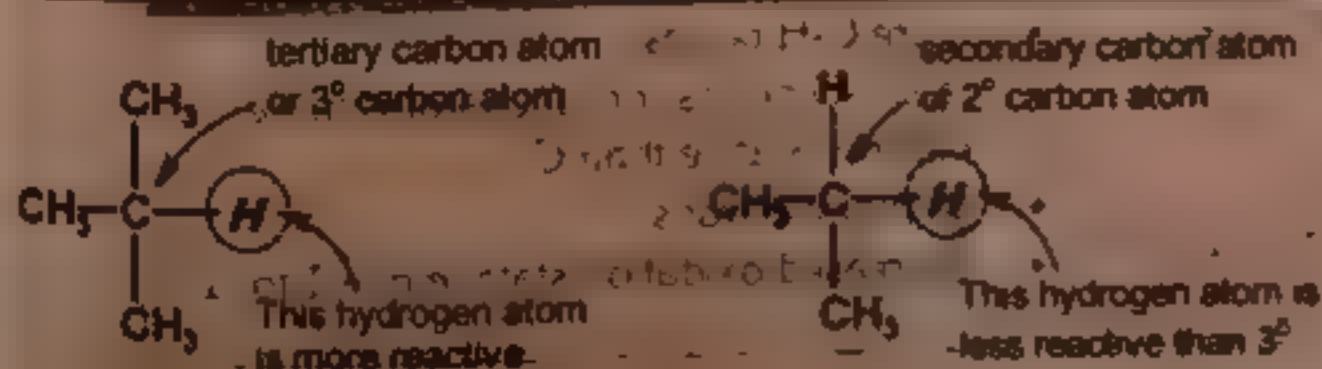


Important to Note:

- Substitution of R-H by -X provides the alkyl halide, R-X and HX.
- Alkane R-H relative reactivity order: $3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ > \text{methyl}$.
- Halogen reactivity: $\text{F}_2 > \text{Cl}_2 > \text{Br}_2 > \text{I}_2$.
- Only chlorination and bromination are useful in the laboratory.
- Reaction proceeds via a radical chain mechanism.

Important!

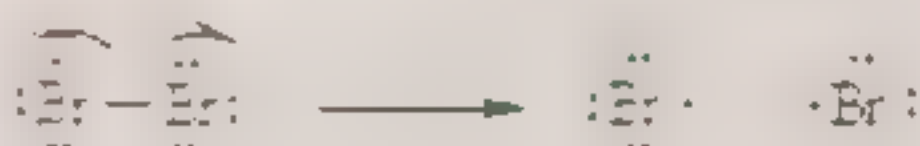
- 3° is tertiary carbon: a carbon atom is attached to three carbon atoms.
- 2° is secondary carbon: a carbon atom is attached to two carbon atoms.
- 1° is primary carbon: a carbon atom is attached to one carbon atom.



REACTION MECHANISM Radical chain mechanism for reaction of methane with Br

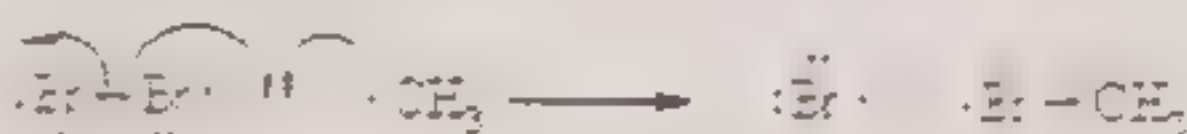
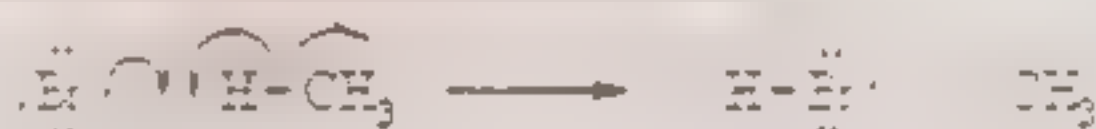
Step 1 (Initiation)

The reaction is initiated by light or heat, which breaks the Br-Br bond to form two bromine radicals.



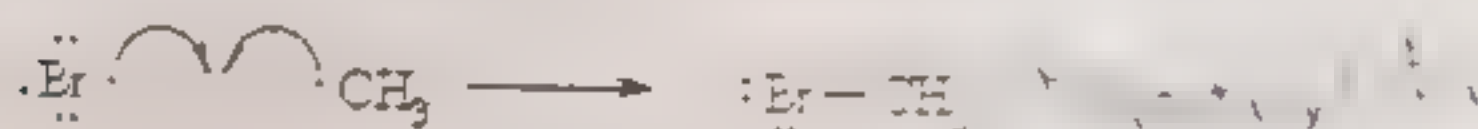
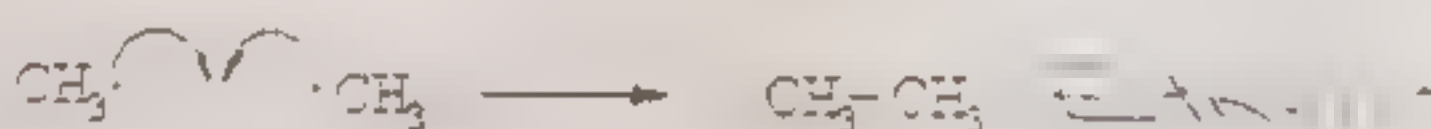
Step 2 (Propagation)

- A bromine radical reacts with methane to form HBr and a methyl radical.
 - The methyl radical then reacts with another molecule of Br₂ to form the final product, bromomethane, and regenerate a bromine radical.
- Both the steps are repeated over and over again.



Step 3 (Termination)

- Two radicals react to form a stable molecule, e.g. Br₂ or CH₄, or CH₃Br.
- These reactions are called termination reactions.



OXIDATION AND REDUCTION OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

- Oxidation (O) and reduction (R) are opposite reactions. These reactions are called **redox reactions**.
- Organic chemists will normally describe a reaction in terms of the major organic component.

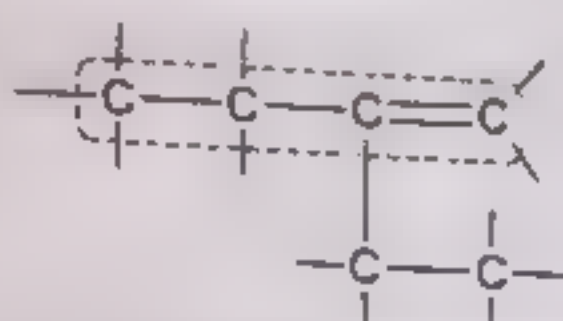
Oxidation	Reduction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> more C-C bonds (or other atoms more electronegative than C) less C-H bonds loss of electrons increased oxidation state, e.g. +1 to +3 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> more C-H bonds less C-C bonds gain of electrons decreased oxidation state, e.g. +3 to +1

ALKENES

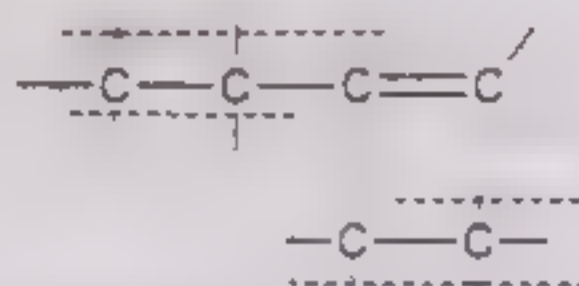
Acyclic unsaturated hydrocarbons containing double bond are called alkenes

NOMENCLATURE:

- (1) The longest continuous chain containing double bond is selected as the parent chain.
- (2) The ending 'ane' is replaced by 'ene'.

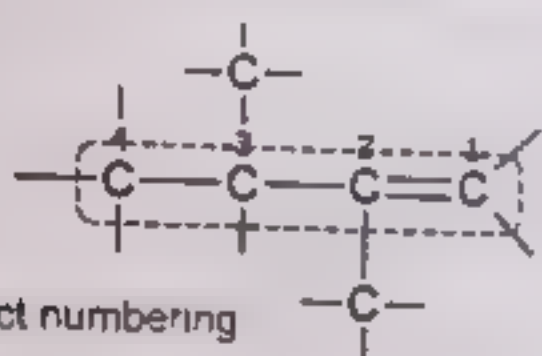


Longest Chain with double bond, Correct

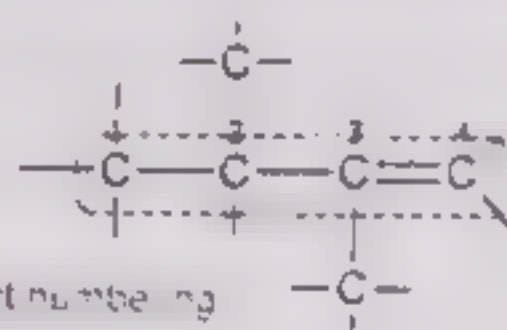


Longest Chain without double bond, Incorrect

- (3) The chain is numbered in such a manner as to give minimum number to the carbon atom nearest to the double bond.

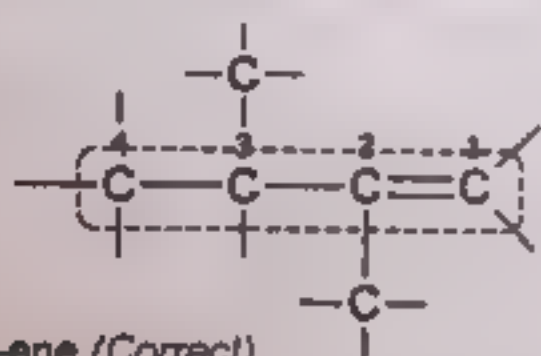


Correct numbering

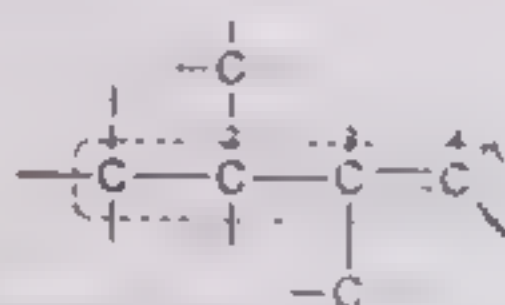


Incorrect numbering

- (4) The position of double bond is indicated by the lower number of C-atom.



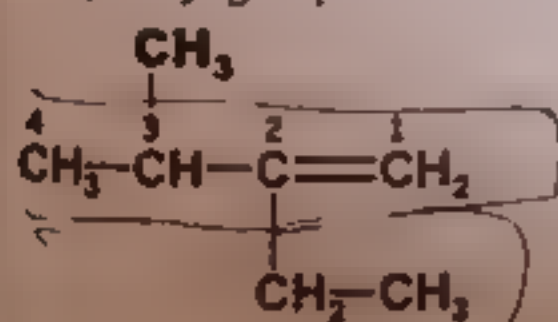
1-ene (Correct)



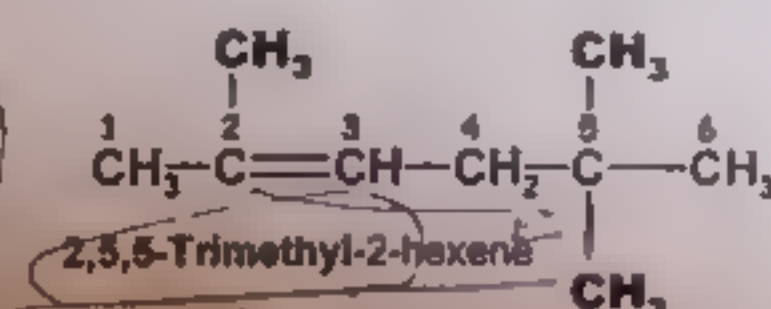
2-ene, Incorrect

- (5) The lower number of C-atom is placed before the name of parent alkene.

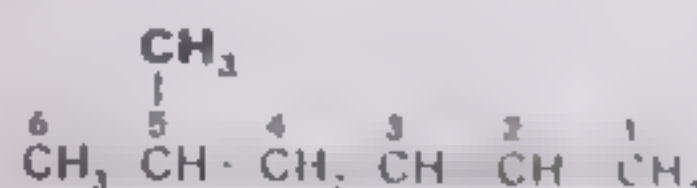
- (6) Alkyl groups are indicated by the methods mentioned in alkane.



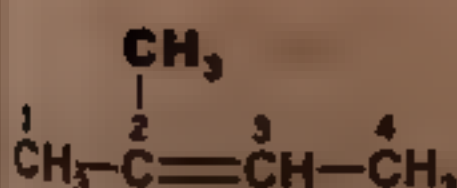
2-Ethyl-3-methyl-1-butene



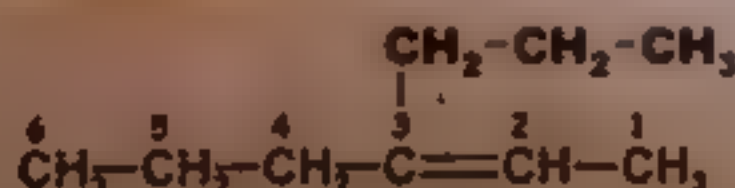
2,5,5-Trimethyl-2-hexene



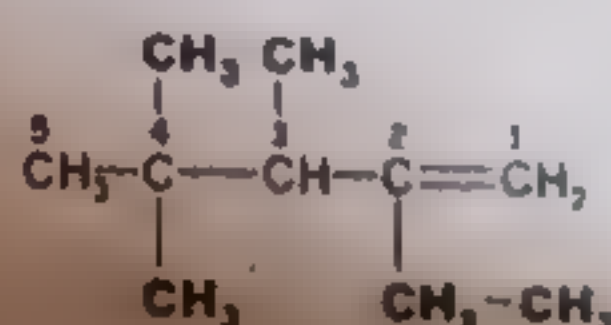
5-Methyl-2-hexene



2-Methyl-2-butene

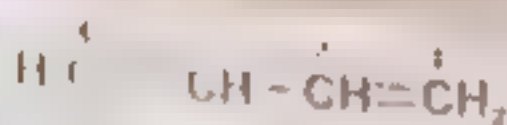


3-Propyl-2-hexene

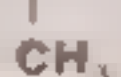
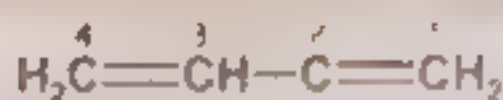


2-Ethyl-3,4,4-Trimethyl-1-hexene

(2) 3) ...



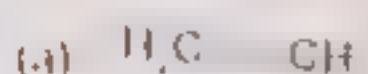
1,3-Butadiene



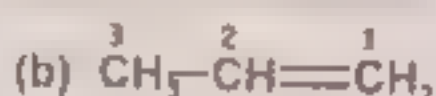
2-Methyl-1,3-butadiene

ACTIVITY

1. Name the following Olefins by the IUPAC Systems



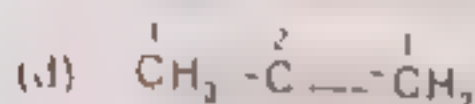
Ethene



1-Propene



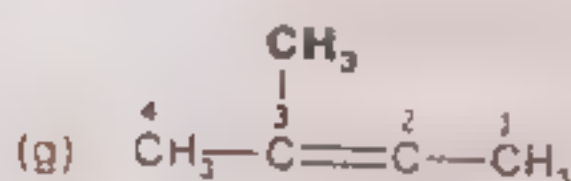
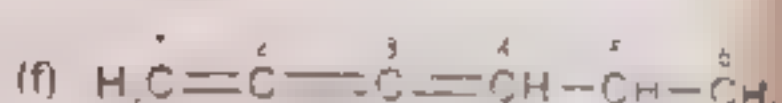
2-Pentene



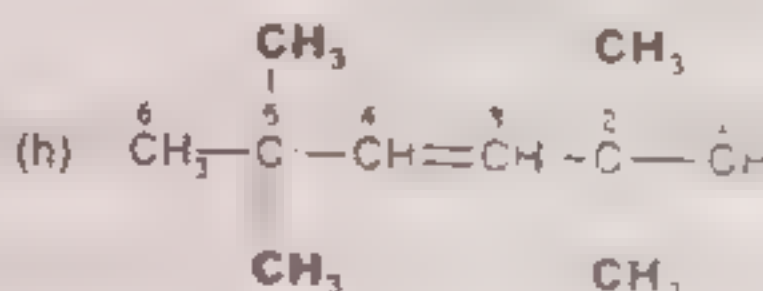
2-Methyl-1-propene



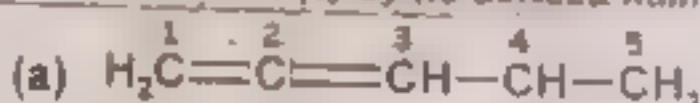
1,3-Pentadiene



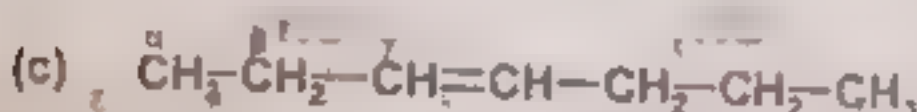
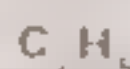
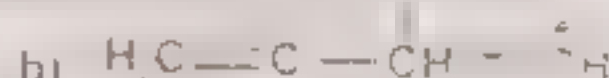
2,3-Dimethyl-2-butene



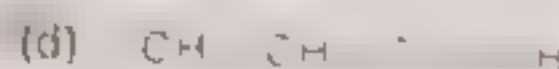
2. Name the compounds (a) and (b) by IUPAC nomenclature and compounds (c) and (d) by their trivial common names and (e) by its derived name



4-Methyl-1,2-pentadiene



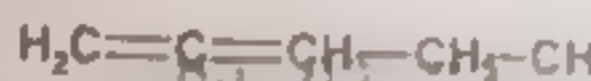
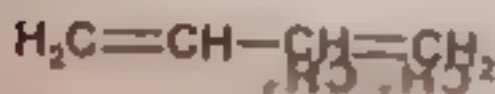
1-Heptene
(3-Heptene)



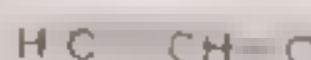
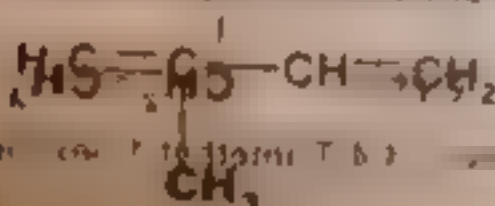
3. Write structural formulas for the following compounds and discuss them

(a) 1,3-Butadiene

(b) 1,2-Pentadiene

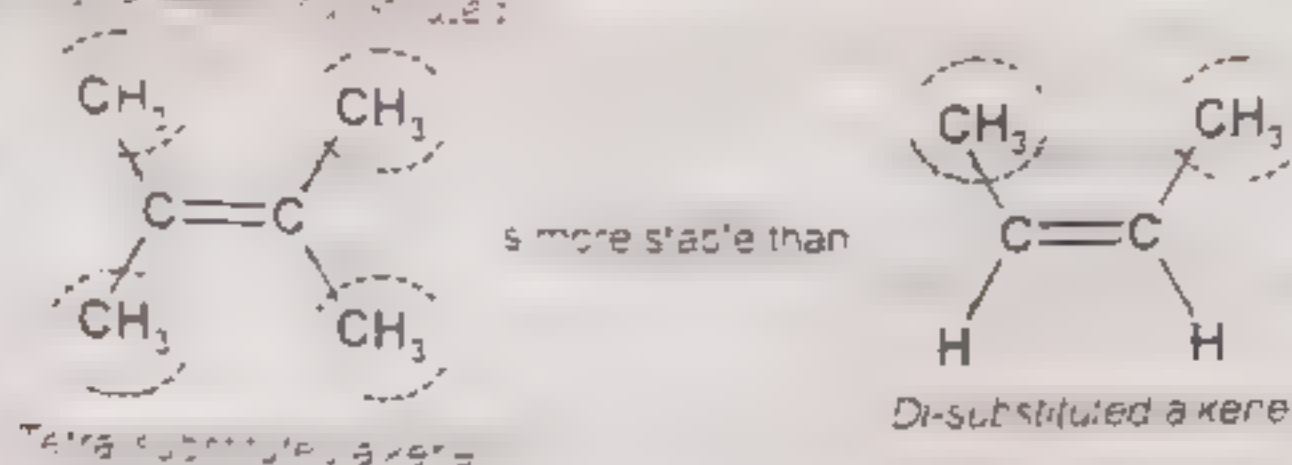


(c) 2-Methyl-1,3-butadiene

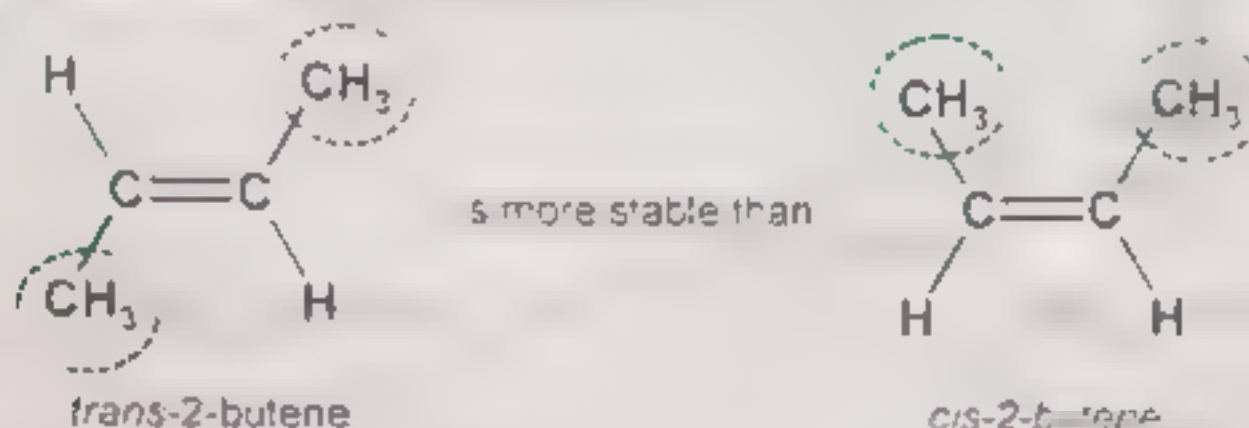


ALKENE STABILITY

1) Degree of substitution: Alkenes are more stable when the double bond is more substituted.



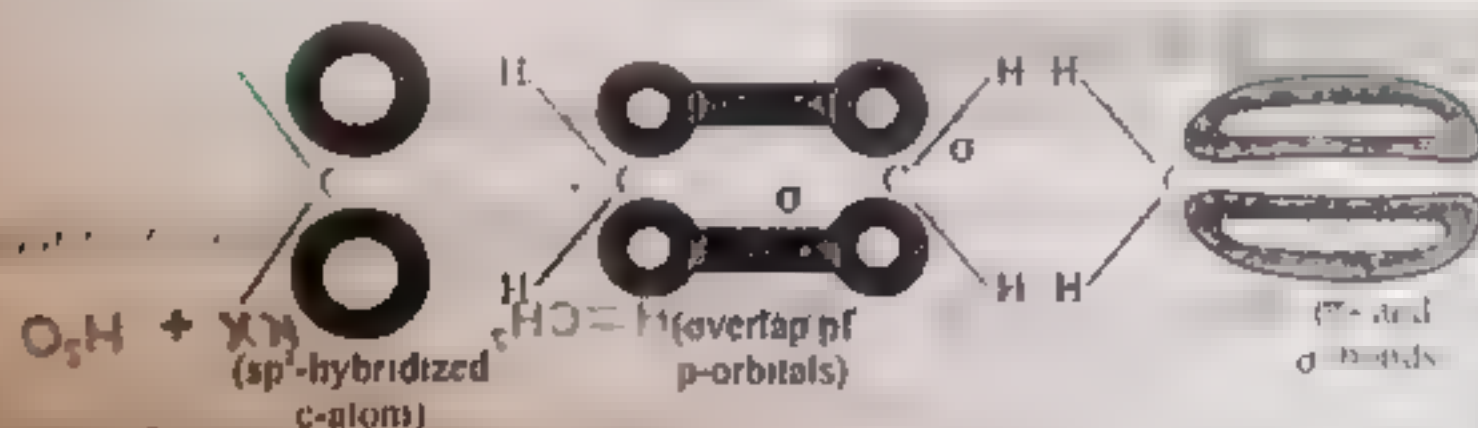
2) Stereoelectronic effects: Alkenes are more stable when there are less steric interactions across the double bond e.g. trans-2-butene is more stable than cis-2-butene.



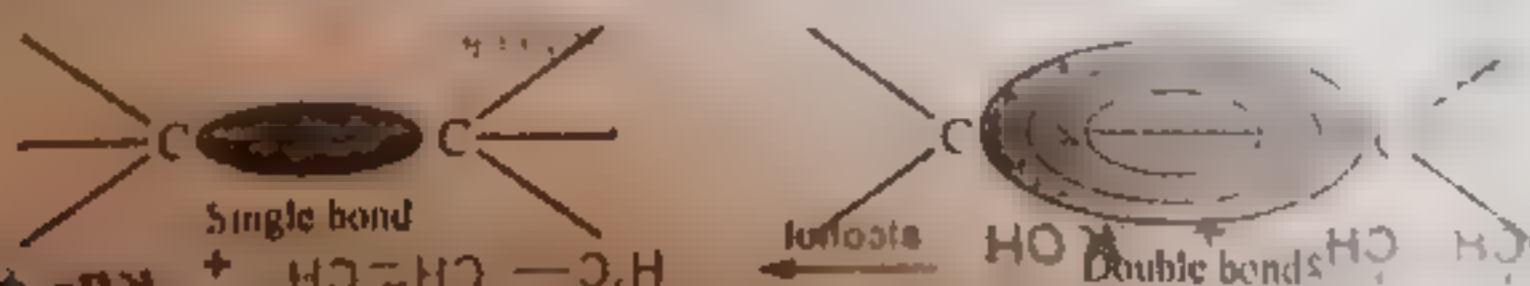
3) Conjugated alkenes are more stable than isolated alkenes. 1,3-Pentadiene is more stable than 1,4-pentadiene.

STRUCTURE

- The carbon atoms joined together by π bond are sp^2 hybridized.
- Thus, each carbon atom has three sp^2 hybrid orbitals and one p orbital.
- The hybrid orbitals form σ -bonds due to linear overlap.
- The p-orbitals form π -bond due to sideways overlap.



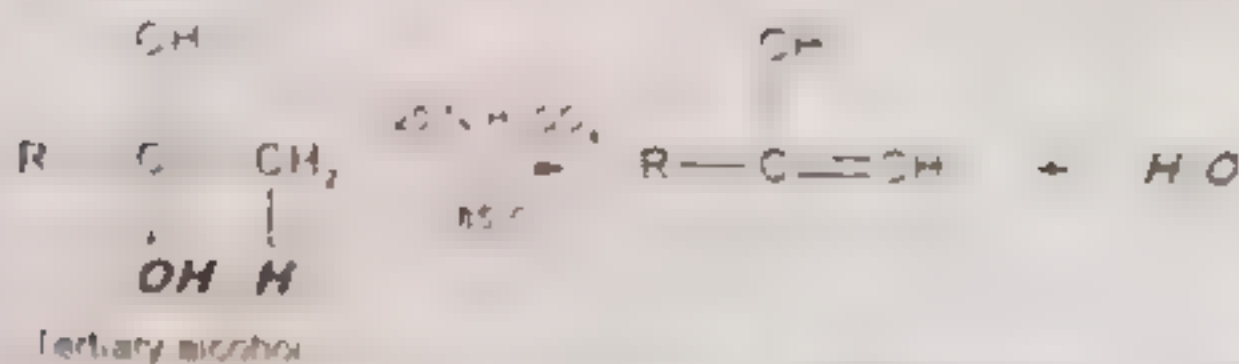
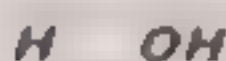
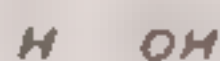
- The carbon-carbon distance in ethene is shorter (1.34 Å) than the C-C single bond (1.54 Å) due to increased electron density between carbon atoms.



- Carbon atoms are coplanar, and the rotation of one C-atom with respect to other is restricted. In cis-trans isomerism in alkene.

PREPARATION OF ALKENES

1) DEHYDRATION OF ALCOHOLS

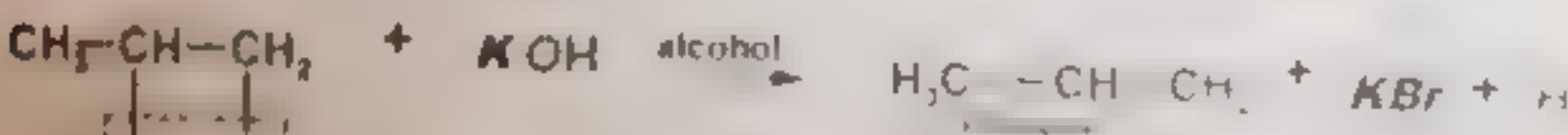
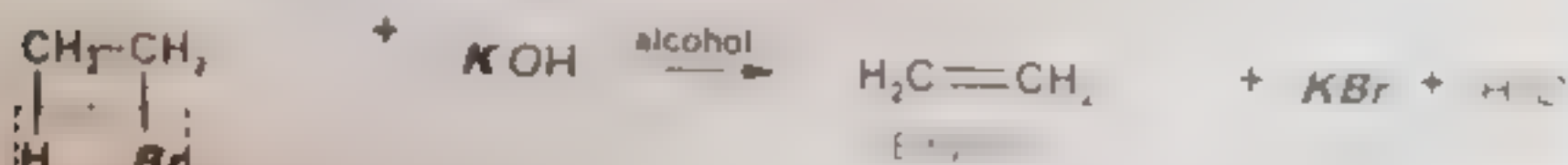
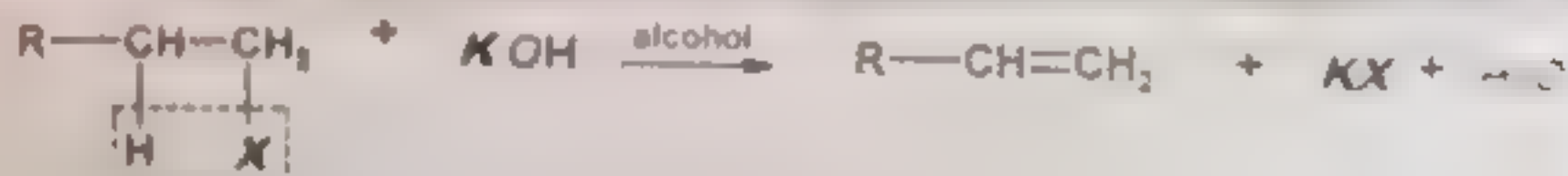


(2) DEHYDROHALOGENATION OF ALKYL HALIDES

Removal of hydrogen halide (HX) from alkyl halides is called Dehydrohalogenation.

Example

Alkyl halides on heating with alcoholic potassium hydroxide



ACTIVITY and REACTIONS:

HYDROGENATION

A process in which a molecule of hydrogen is added to an alkene in the presence of pressure (1-5 atm) to give a saturated compound is known as catalytic hydrogenation.

Examples and Explanation

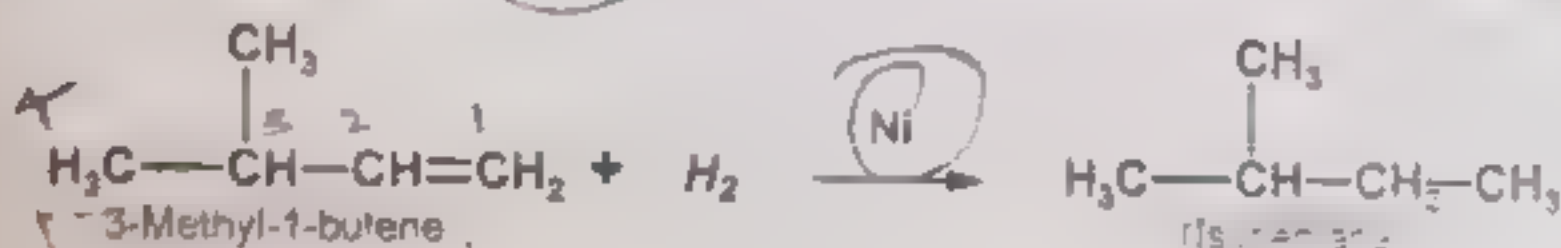
1. Heat of Hydrogenation

2. The heat of hydrogenation of an alkene is the heat evolved when one mole of the alkene is hydrogenated.

Example: Nickel

Reaction: $\text{Ni} + \text{Al} + \text{NaOH} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow \text{Ni} + \text{NaAlO}_2 + \frac{3}{2} \text{H}_2$

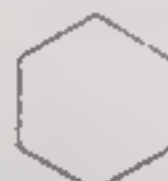
Example:



Benzene

+

3H_2



Cyclohexane

Catalytic hydrogenation has many applications

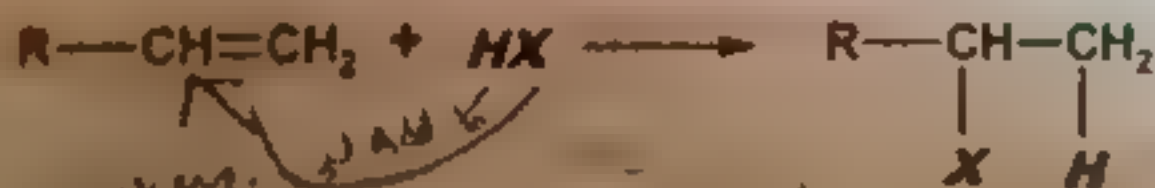
In industry, vegetable ghee is prepared by catalytic hydrogenation of vegetable oil.

The reaction is quantitative, therefore, it is used in laboratory for analytical purpose.

It is also used as synthetic method in laboratory.

HYDROHALOGENATION The electrophilic

Alkenes react with aqueous solution of halogen acid to form alkyl halides.



The order of reactivity of halogen acids is $\text{HI} > \text{HBr} > \text{HCl}$

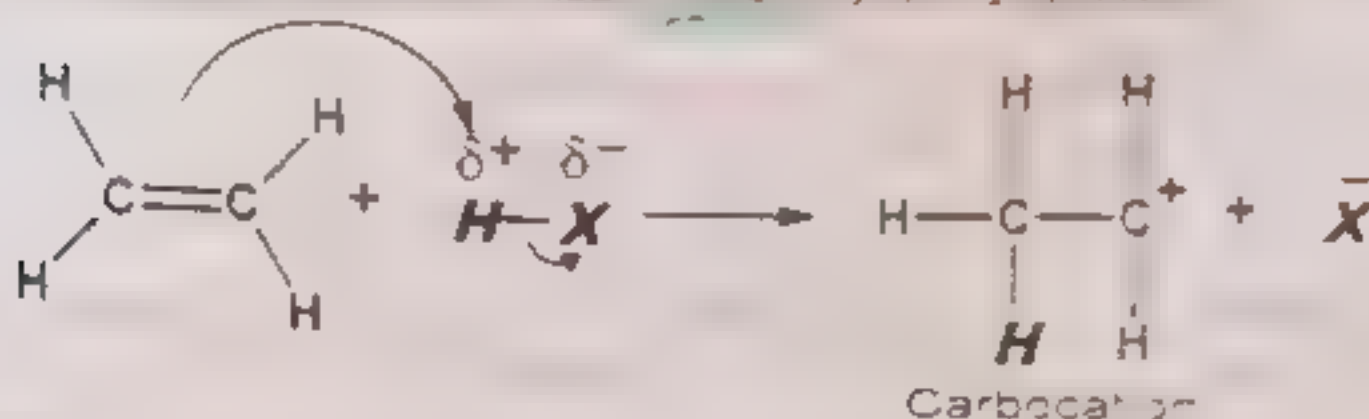
addition of
hydrohalic
acids to
alkenes
is called
hydrohalogenation.

Mechanism

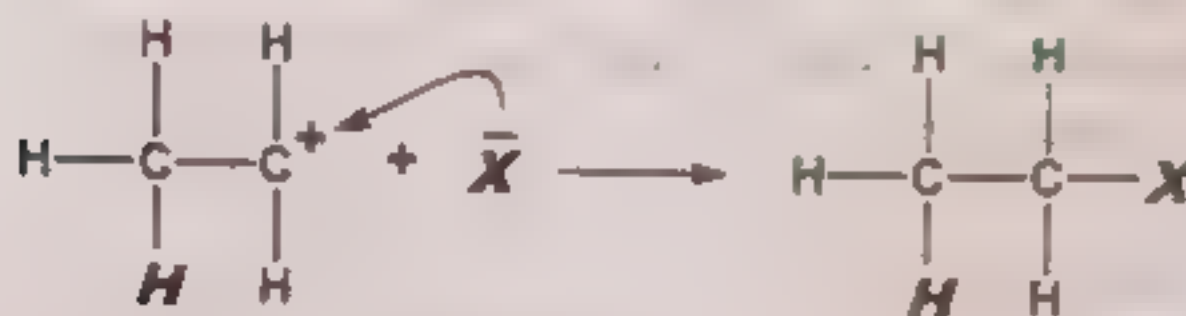
The process occurs in 2 steps

Step - 1

In first step, H of HX adds to the double bond

**Step - 2**

In second step, halide ion combines with carbocation to give the final product

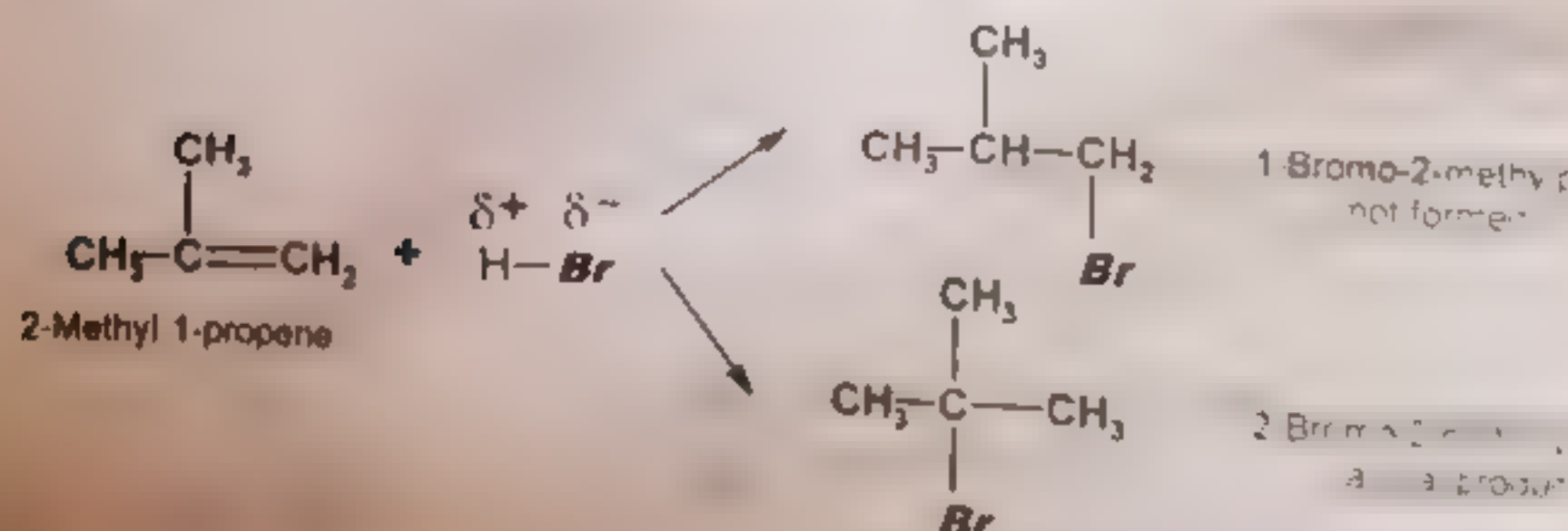
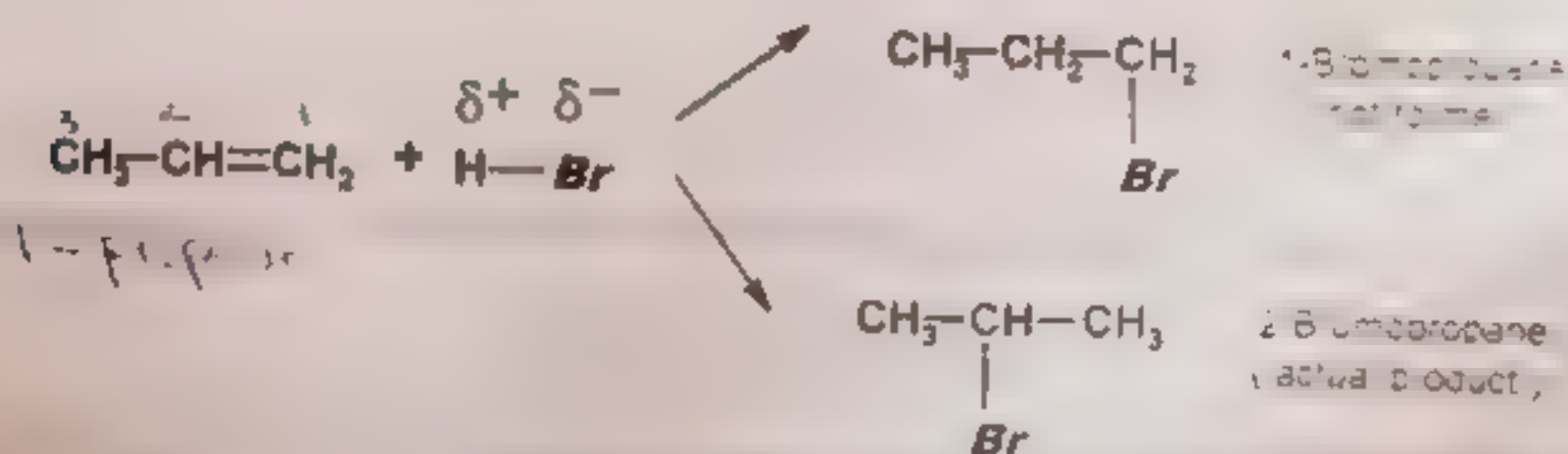
**Markownikov's Rule**

The addition of HX to unsymmetrical alkenes follows Markownikov's Rule

It states

In the addition of an unsymmetrical reagent to an unsymmetrical alkene, the negative part of the reagent goes to that carbon, consisting the double bond, which has least number of hydrogen atoms

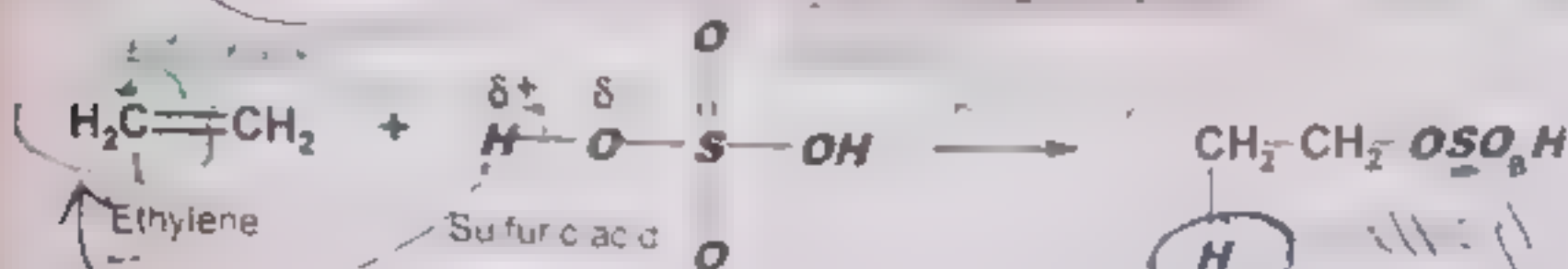
Examples:



3) HYDRATION

Some reactive alkenes react with water in the presence of suitable substances as catalysts. It is possible as alkenes are soluble in cold concentrated sulphuric acid. The reaction is as follows:

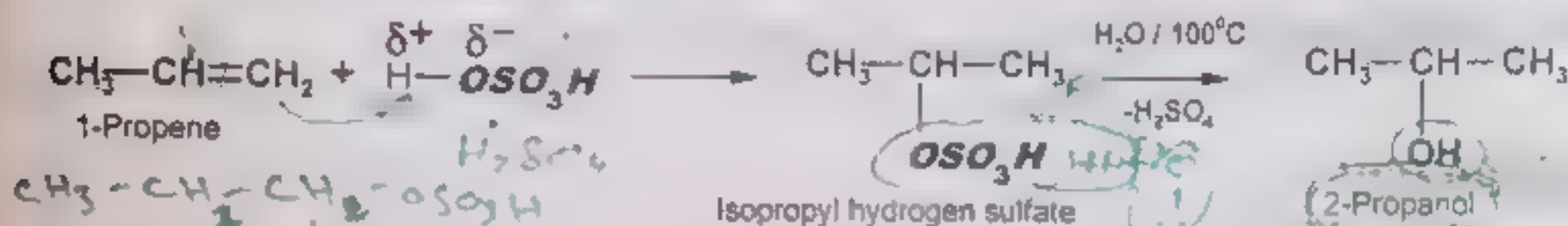
(i) Alkenes dissolve in conc. H_2SO_4 and form alkyl hydrogen sulphates.



(ii) Alkyl hydrogen sulphates on heating with water give alcohols.

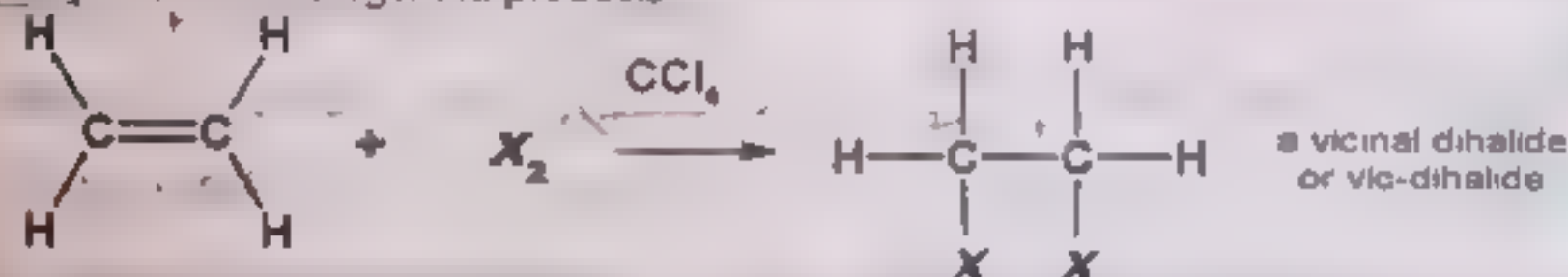


The reaction follows Markownikoff's rule.



4) HALOGENATION

The alkenes react with halogen in an inert solvent like carbon tetrachloride at room temperature to give vicinal dihalides or 1,2 dihalogenated products.



Remember!
A vicinal or vic-dihalide has two halogen atoms on adjacent carbon atoms.

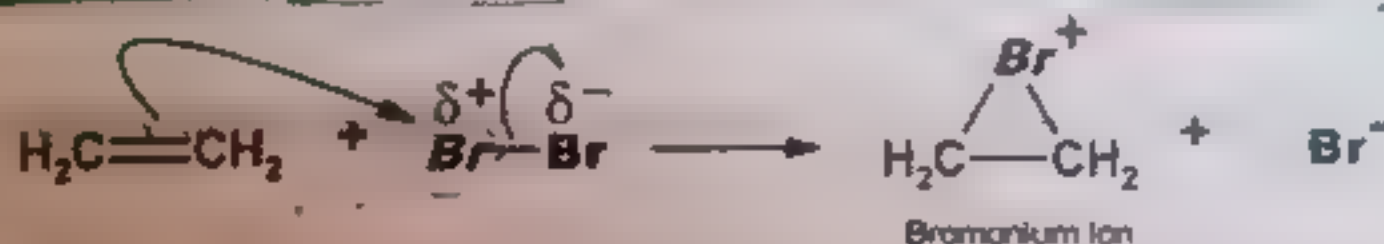
Br_2 and Cl_2 are effective electrophilic reagents. Reaction of F_2 is too fast to control. I_2 does not react.

Mechanism

The reaction occurs in two steps.

Step - 1

A bromine molecule becomes polarized as it approaches the alkene. This polarized bromine molecule transfers a positive bromine atom to the alkene resulting in the formation of a bromonium ion.



Step - 2

The nucleophilic bromide ion then attacks on the carbon of the bromonium ions to form 1,2-dibromoethane. The color of bromine is discharged.

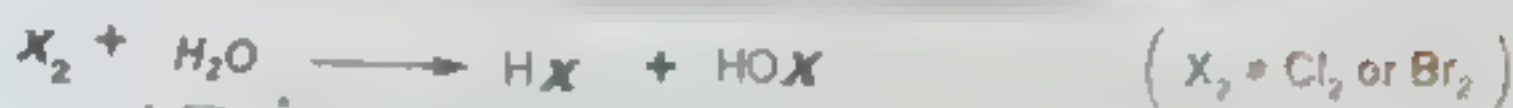


In this reaction red colour of Br_2 is discharged. So this reaction is used to detect the presence of double bond in a compound.

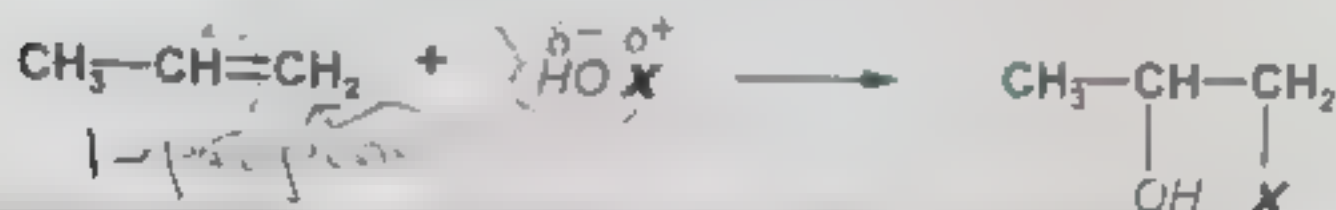
(5) HALOHYDRATION

Addition of hypohalous acid (HOX) is called halohydratation.

- Alkenes react with hypohalous acid to give halohydrin.
- In this reaction, molecules of the solvent (water) become reactant.

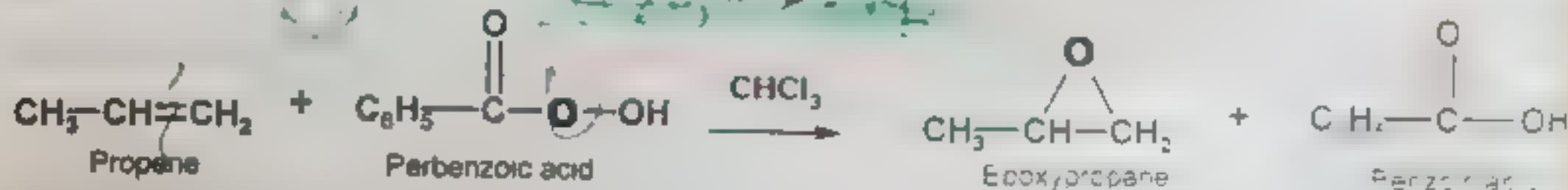
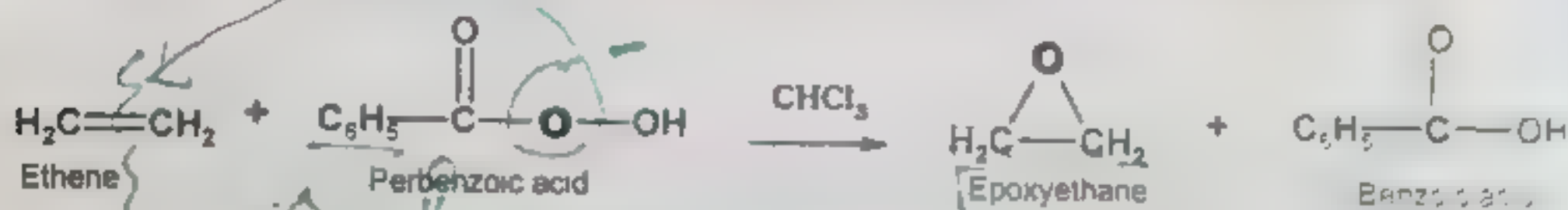


The reaction follows Markownikoff's rule



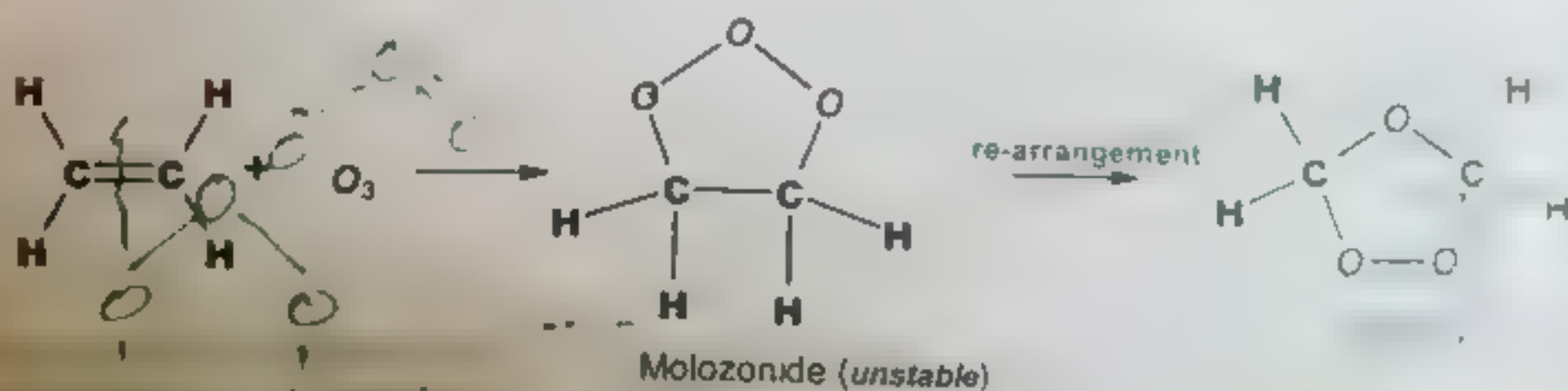
(6) EPOXIDATION

- It is the formation of epoxides.
- Peracids such as peroxyacetic acid or peroxybenzoic acids react with alkene to form epoxide.



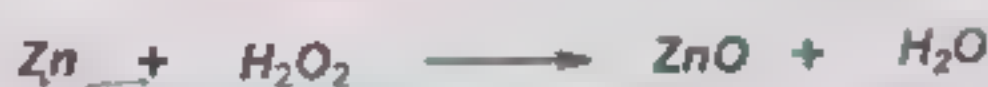
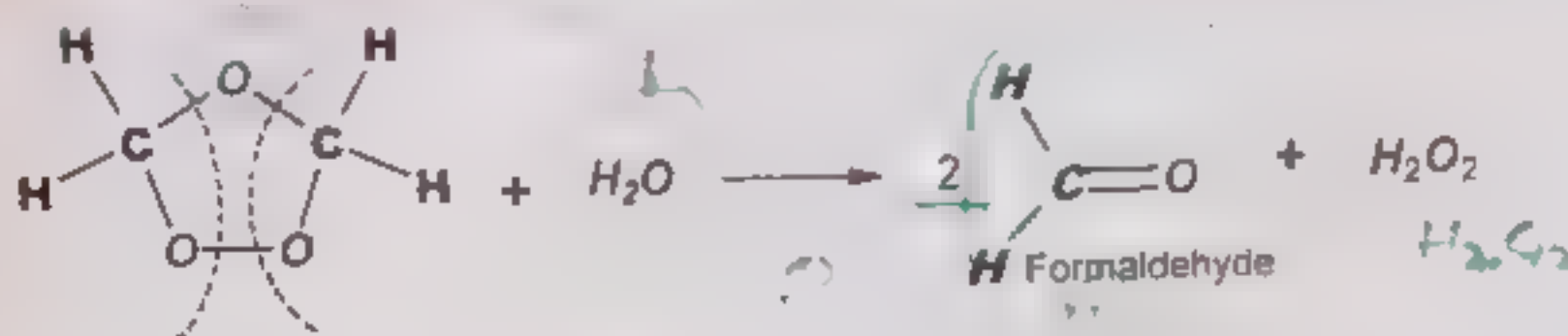
(7) OZONOLYSIS

Ozone (O_3) reacts vigorously with alkenes to form unstable molozonide. It rearranges spontaneously to form ozonide.



REDUCTION OZONIDE

Ozonides are unstable compounds and are reduced directly on treatment with zinc and H_2O . The reduction produces carbonyl compounds (aldehydes or ketones).

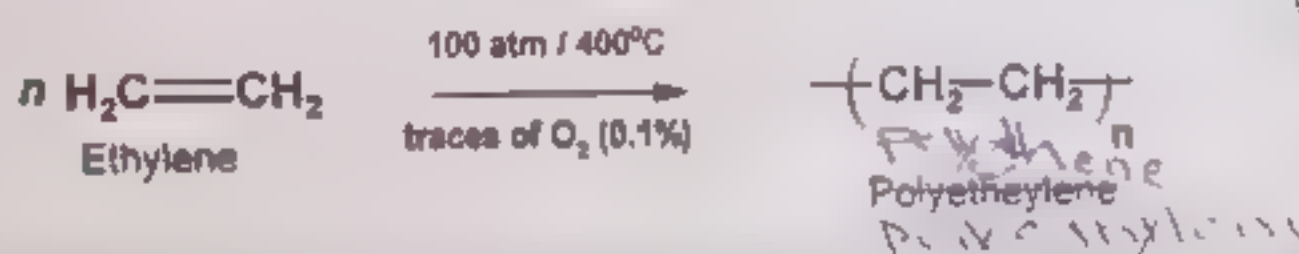


- Ozonolysis is used to locate the position of double bond in an alkene.
- The C-atom of double bond is changed to carbonyl group.

POLYMERIZATION

Polymerization is a process in which a small organic molecules which are called monomers combine together to form larger molecules. The substances so produced are called polymers.

Ethene polymerizes to polythene at 400°C at a pressure of 100 atm.

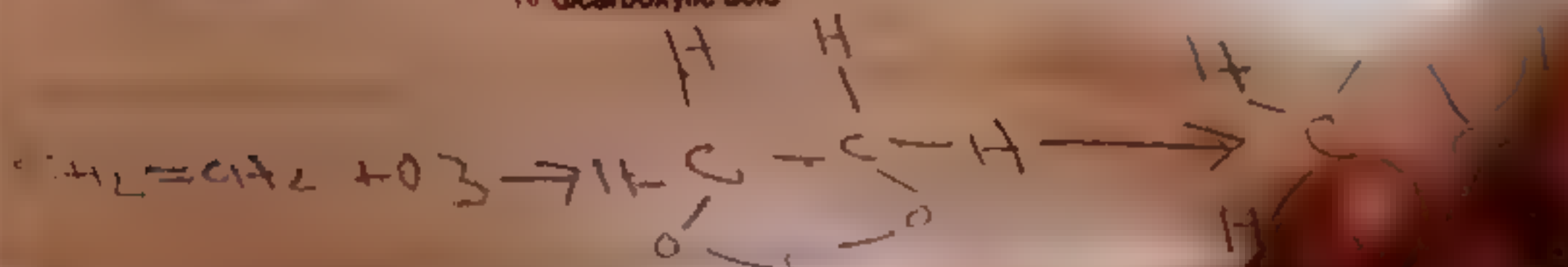


Good quality of polyethylene is also produced by polymerization of ethene in the presence of a catalyst like $\text{Al}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_3$ and titanium tetrachloride (TiCl_4) catalysts.

Interesting Information

Examples of natural and synthetic polymers

	Polymer	Monomer	Where you find it
Natural	1. Protein	1. Amino acids	1. Wool, silk, muscle, etc
	2. Starch	2. Glucose	2. Potato, wheat, etc
	3. Cellulose	3. Glucose	3. Paper, wood, dietary fibre
	4. DNA	4. Nucleotides	4. Chromosomes, genes
	5. Poly (ethane)	5. Ethane	5. Bags, washing-up bowls, etc
Synthetic	6. Poly (chloroethene)	6. Chloroethene	6. Fabric coatings, electrical insulation, toys
	7. (PVC)	7. Phenylethene	7. Expanded polystyrene
	8. Poly (phenylethene)		8. Skirts, shirts, trousers
	9. (polystyrene)		
	10. polyester	10. Ethane-1,2-diol and benzene-1,2-dicarboxylic acid	



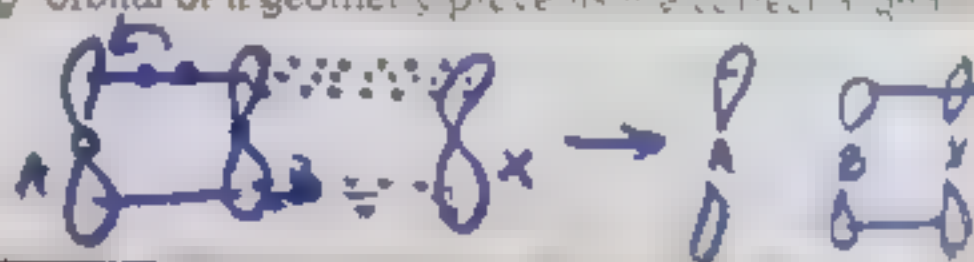
CONJUGATION

- The word **conjugation** is derived from a Latin word that means "to link together".
- In organic chemistry, it is used to describe the situation that occurs when p-systems are linked together.
- An "**isolated**" p-system exists only between a single pair of adjacent atoms [e.g. $C=C$].
- An "**extended**" p-system exists over a longer series of atoms [e.g. $C=C-C=C$ or $C=C-C=O$].
- An extended p-system results in an extension of the chemical reactivity.

Fundamental Condition of a Conjugated System

- A conjugated system requires that there is a continuous array of "p" orbitals that can overlap to produce a bonding overlap along the whole system.
- If a position in the chain does not provide a "p" orbital or if geometry prevents the correct alignment, then the conjugation is broken at that point.

Examples:



System	p system	Type	System	p system	Type
Ethene		isolated	1,4-Pentadiene		isolated
Propene		isolated	1,3-Cyclopentadiene		conjugated
1,2-Propadiene (Allene)		cumulated	1,3-Cyclohexadiene		conjugated
1,3-Butadiene		conjugated	1,4-Cyclohexadiene		isolated
1,3-Pentadiene		conjugated	Benzene		conjugated

The result of conjugation is that there are extra p bonding interactions between the atoms, leading to an overall stabilization of the system.

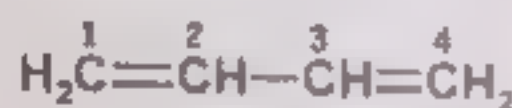
QUICK QUIZ-3

What is Conjugation? → In chemistry

The word "conjugation" is derived from a Latin word that means to join.

In organic chemistry, it is used to describe the presence of an "extended" p system existing over a longer series of atoms.

Example:



1,3-Butadiene



What are conjugated alkenes?

The alkenes in which an "extended" p system exists over a longer series of atoms.

Example



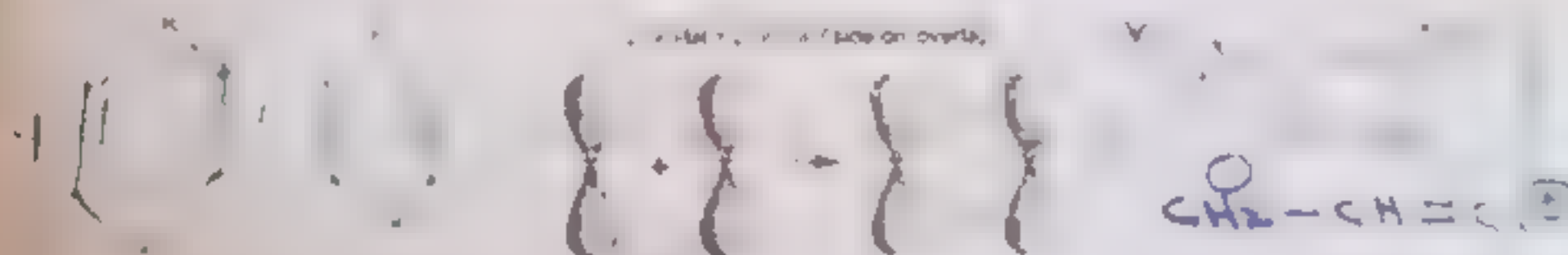
1,3-Butadiene



1,3,5-Hexatriene

What is pi bond

A bond formed between two p-orbitals whose lobes overlap side-on.



π bond formation

What are s and p orbitals

When the value of azimuthal quantum number is 0, it can have maximum two electrons.

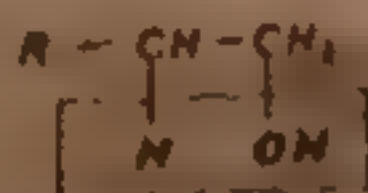
When the value of azimuthal quantum number is 1, there are three orbitals p_x , p_y and p_z . These orbitals are present in each shell and each orbital can have maximum two electrons each.

What is dehydration

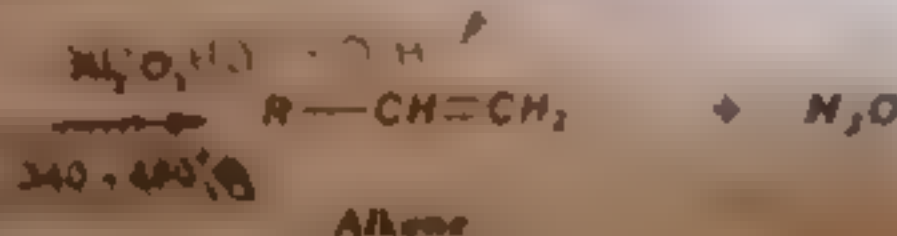
Removal of water molecule is called dehydration.

Example

When vapors of alcohol are passed over heated Al_2O_3 , an alkene is formed.



Alcohol

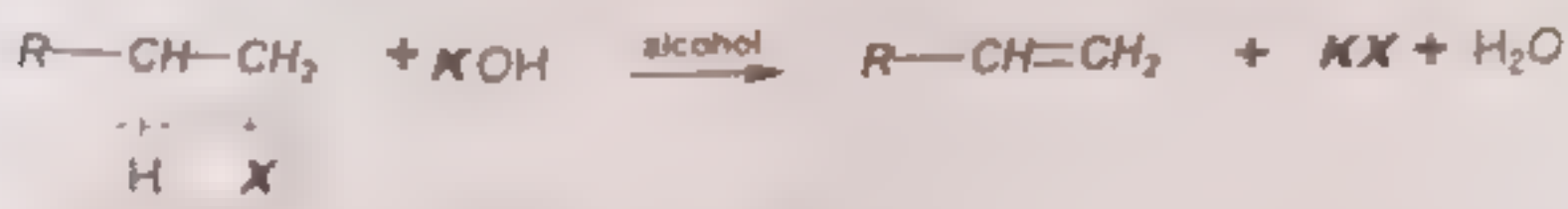




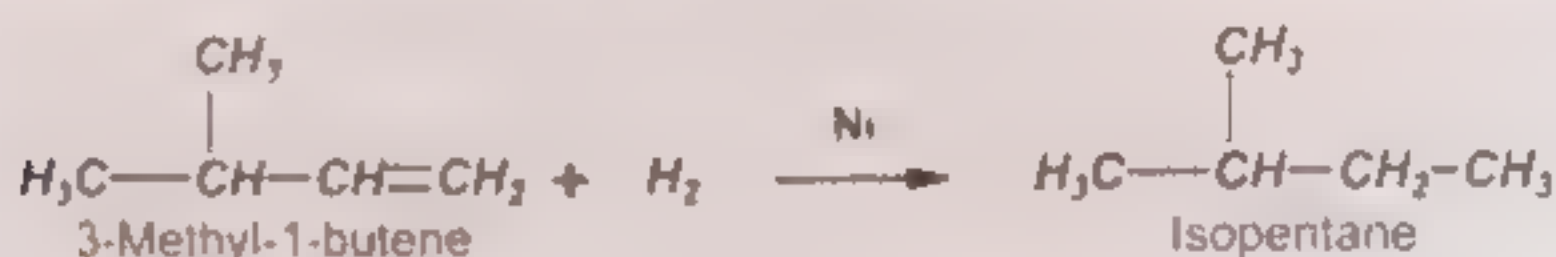
6. What is dehydrohalogenation

Removal of hydrogen halide from alkyl halides is called Dehydrohalogenation.

Example:

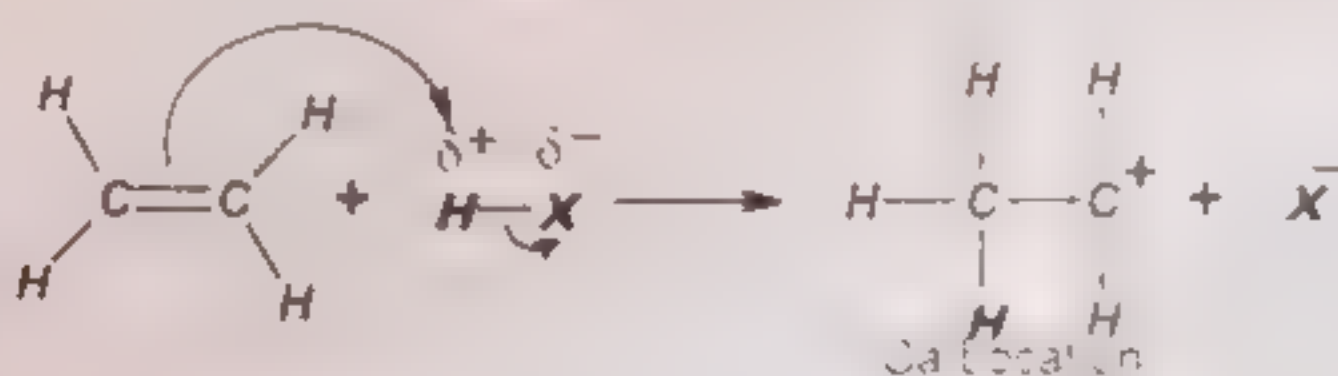


7. What is hydrogenation



8. What is carbocation

A carbocation is a reaction intermediate. It is trivalent with a positive charge on carbon atom. It can be produced as follows:

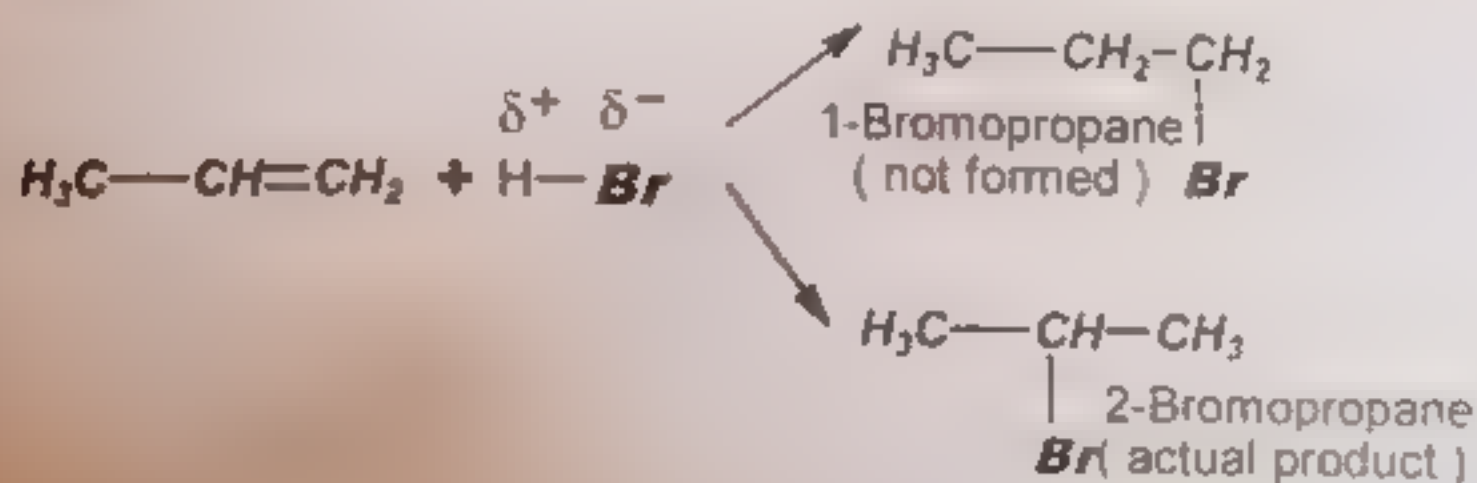


9. What is Markownikoff's rule?

It states:

In the addition of an unsymmetrical reagent to an unsymmetrical alkene, the negative part of the adding reagent goes to that carbon, consisting the double bond which has least number of hydrogen atoms.

Example:



10. What is electrophilic reagent?

An electron deficient reagent is called electrophile. e.g.

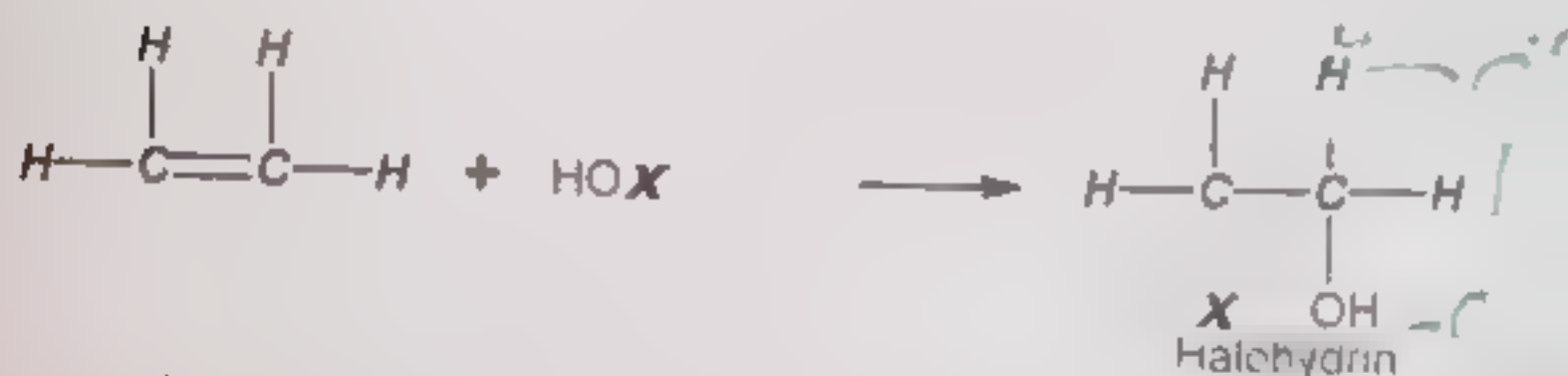
11. What is nucleophilic reagent?

An electron rich reagent is called nucleophile. e.g.

12. What is halohydration?

Addition of hypohalous acid HOX is called halohydration.

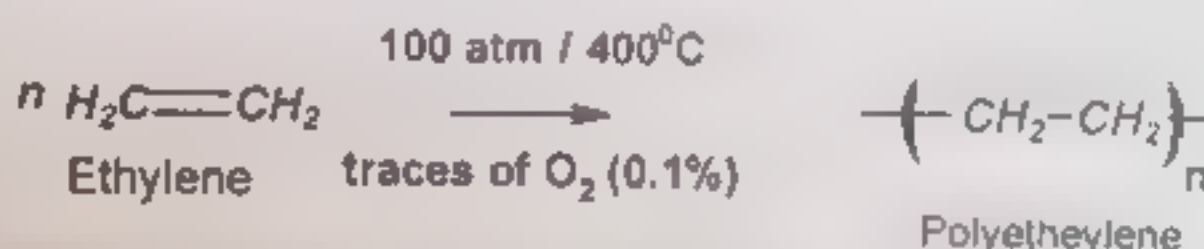
Alkenes react with hypohalous acid to give halohydrin. In this reaction, molecules of the same reactants too.



$\text{X}_2 = \text{Cl}_2 \text{ or } \text{Br}_2$

13. What is polymerization

- Polymerization is a process in which a small organic molecules join together to form larger molecules. The substances so produced are called polymers
- Ethene polymerizes to polythene at 400°C at a pressure of 100 atm



Exercise Q3(1). What is isomerism? Explain different types of isomerism?

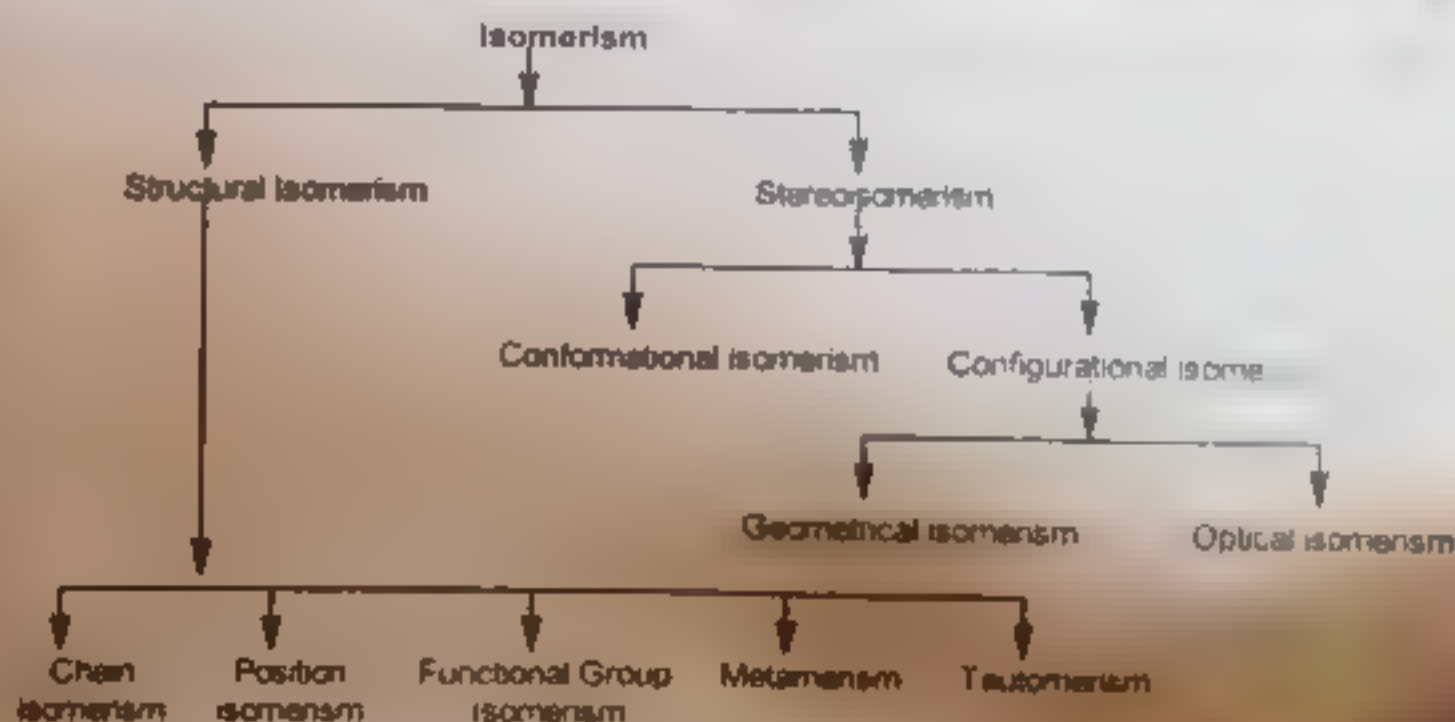
ISOMERISM

Compounds that have the same molecular formula but different chemical structures are called isomers and the phenomenon is called isomerism.

The difference in properties of isomers must be due to different modes of combination or arrangement of atoms within the molecule.

Configuration:

The term configuration is the three-dimensional arrangement of atoms that characterizes a particular compound.



Hydrocarbon

There are

- (1) Structural isomerism
- (2) Stereoisomerism

STRUCTURAL ISOMERISM

When the isomerism is due to difference in the arrangement of atoms within the molecule without any reference to space, the phenomenon is called **Structural Isomerism**.

Structural isomers are compounds that have the same molecular formula but different structural formula.

Structural isomerism is of five types

- (a) Chain isomerism
- (b) Position isomerism
- (c) Functional isomerism
- (d) Metamerism
- (e) Tautomerism

STEREISOMERISM

When isomerism is caused by the different arrangements of atoms or groups in space the phenomenon is called **Stereoisomerism**.

- The stereoisomers have the same structural formulas but differ in arrangement of atoms in space.
- Stereoisomer is exhibited by such compounds which have the same structural formula but different configuration.

Two important types of stereoisomerism are

- (a) Geometrical or cis-trans isomerism
- (b) Optical isomerism

CHIRAL CENTER

The center in a molecule due to which molecule becomes asymmetric is called a **chiral center**.

PLANE OF SYMMETRY

A plane which divides an object into two symmetrical halves, is said to be **plane of symmetry**.

Examples and Explanation:

- A person or a hat has a plane of symmetry.
- A person's hand or gloves lack plane of symmetry.
- An object lacking a plane of symmetry is called **dissymmetric** or **Chiral** (pronounced as Ki-pal).
- A **symmetric object** is referred to as **Achiral**.
- A **dissymmetric object** cannot be superimposed on its mirror image.



Plane of Sym

100 Handwritten

100

• A left hand does not pair with another left hand. If you try to place them on each other, if you were to place the thumb would clash.

The mirror image relationship.

It should be noted that right hand



Chiral molecule has at least one asym



Chiral objects

• An achiral molecule has a plane of symmetry

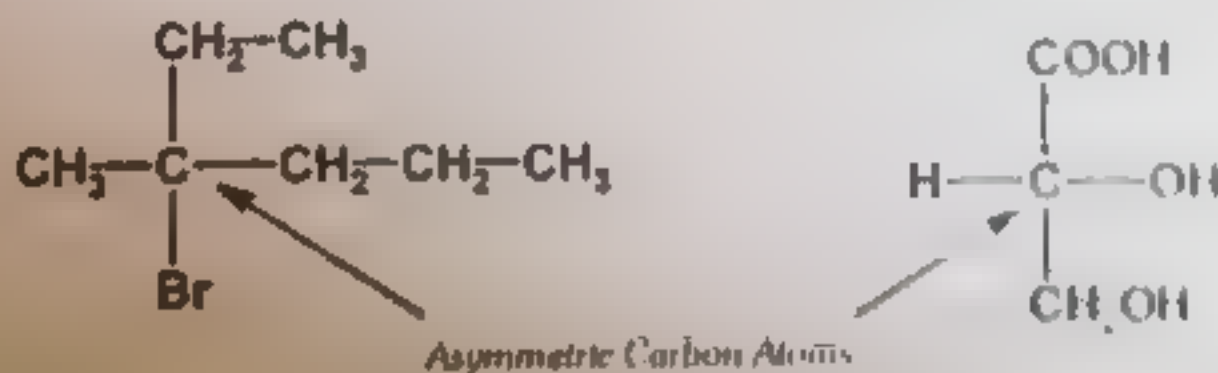


Achiral objects

CARBON-BASED CHIRAL CENTERS:

A carbon atom which is bonded to four different groups is called an Asymmetric Carbon Atom or Chiral Carbon Atom.

Examples:



- The term asymmetric carbon atom is misleading. It only means that a carbon atom is bonded to four different groups. Such type of molecule lacks plane of symmetry and is called asymmetric. Asymmetric means without symmetry.
- Presently the term Dissymmetric or Chiral Molecules is often used for asymmetric molecules.

OPTICAL ACTIVITY

A substance that can rotate plane of polarized light is called optically active and this property of a substance is called optical activity.

Explanation

- Every magnet radiates in all possible planes. When this light is passed through a Nicol prism (made of calcite CaCO_3) which allows only those radiation to pass through it, which are parallel to its axis. This light is called plane polarized light or simply polarized.
- When plane polarized light will pass through a solution of an optically active compound, the compound will rotate the plane of polarized light either to left or right. These compounds are said to be Optically Active. This property of a compound is called Optical Activity.

Dextrorotatory Compound

The compound which rotates the plane of polarized light towards right (clock-wise), is called a dextrorotatory compound. It is indicated by the sign (+) sign.

Levorotatory Compound

The compound which rotates the plane of polarized light towards left (anticlock-wise), is called a levorotatory compound. It is indicated by the sign (-) sign.

Measurement of Optical Rotation

The instrument used to measure direction and magnitude of optical rotation is called Polarimeter.

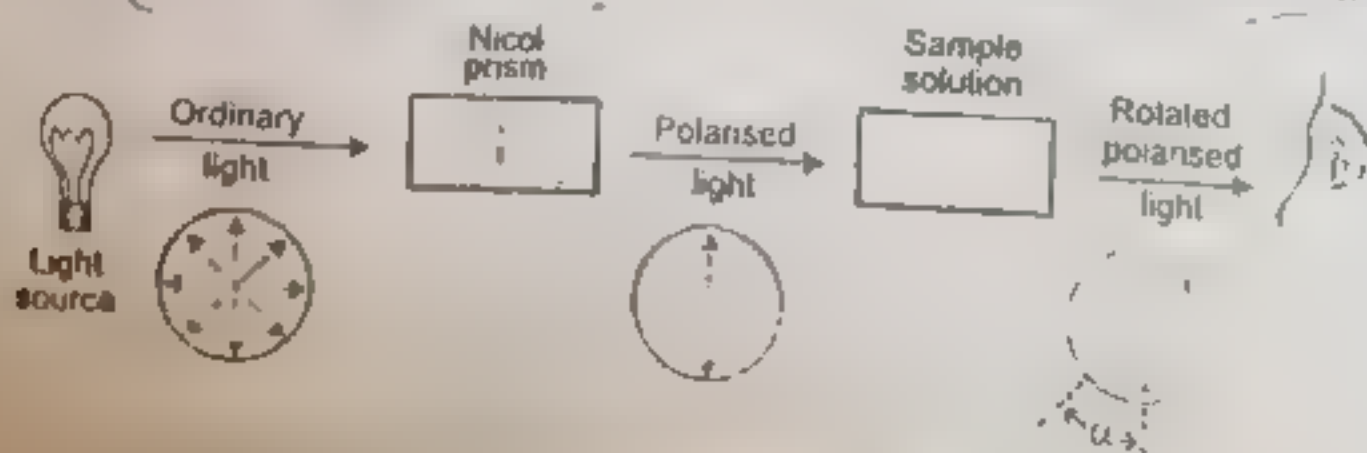
Construction

It has following basic parts

- Fixed polarizer (Nicol prism) to polarize light
- Movable analyzer (Nicol prism)
- A tube containing the solution placed between polarizer and analyzer
- A light source

Working

- Light from light source passes through polarizer and is polarized. If the sample tube is placed in position of polarizer and analyzer gives maximum illumination, This is the zero reading.
- Now a solution of known concentration of an optically active compound is placed in the sample tube. The solution will rotate the plane polarized light through a certain number of degrees. This less illumination will pass through analyzer and there will be less illumination.
- In order to get maximum illumination again, analyzer is rotated, the angle through which analyzer is rotated gives the magnitude of observed rotation (α).
 - ✓ If rotation is to the right, it is said to be (+) and the compound is called dextrorotatory.
 - ✓ If rotation is to the left, it is said to be (-) and the compound is called levorotatory.



A simple polarimeter in operation

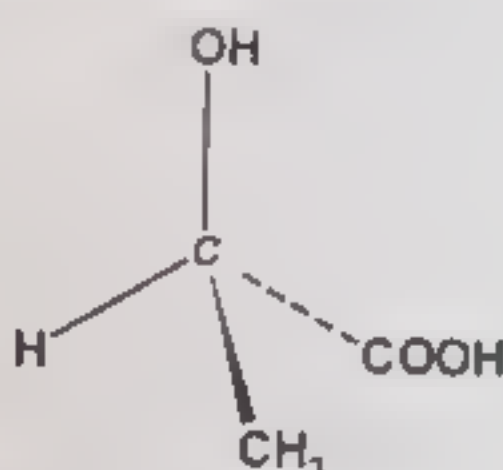
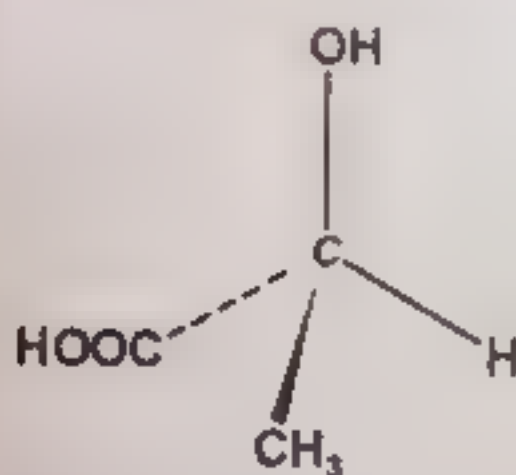
STEREISOMERISM: OPTICAL ISOMERISM

An optically active compound can exist in two isomeric forms which rotate the plane polarized light in opposite directions. These are called Optical Isomers and the phenomenon is known as Optical Isomerism.

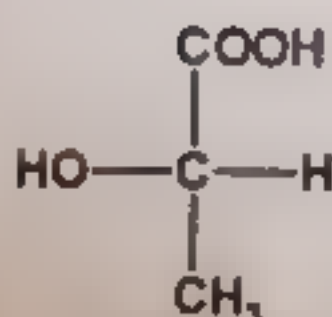
- The isomer which rotates the plane of polarized light to the right (clockwise direction) is known as 'Dextrorotatory' isomer or (+) isomer.
- The isomer which rotates the plane of polarized light to the left (anticlockwise direction) is known as the 'Laevorotatory' isomer or (-) isomer.

Optical Isomerism of Lactic Acid

- Lactic acid (2-Hydroxypropionic acid) is an example of a compound which shows optical isomerism. It contains one asymmetric carbon atom.
- Two three dimensional structures are possible for Lactic acid.

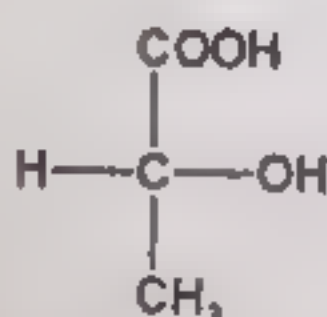


Mirror



(+)-Lactic acid
m.p. = 26°C

(I)



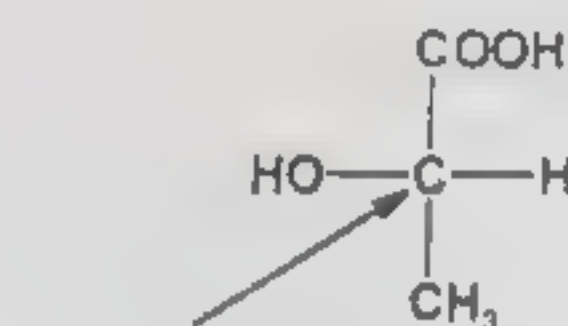
(-)-Lactic acid
m.p. = 26°C

(II)

Equimolar mixture of (+) and (-) forms is called racemic mixture. It is denoted as (\pm).

e.g. (\pm)-Lactic acid

(III)



Asymmetric Carbon Atom

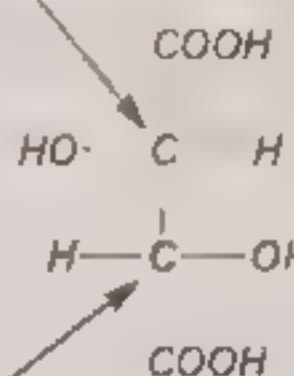
- These structures are not identical because they cannot be superimposed on each other.
- The non-superimposable mirror images of each other are called Enantiomers.
- Equimolar mixture of two enantiomers is called racemic mixture. It is optically inactive and denoted by (\pm).
- Thus, three forms of lactic acid are known. Two are optically active and one is optically inactive.
- (+)-Lactic Acid: It rotates the plane of polarized light to the right (clockwise direction) is called dextrorotatory.
- (-)-Lactic Acid: It rotates the plane of polarized light to the left (anticlockwise direction) is called laevorotatory. (-)-Lactic acid is the mirror image of (+)-lactic acid and vice versa.
- (\pm)-Lactic Acid: It does not rotate the plane of polarized light. That is, it is optically inactive. It is an equimolar mixture of (+) and (-) forms. It is called racemic mixture.

Optical Isomerism of Tartaric Acid

Tartaric acid (2,3-dihydroxybutanedioic acid) contains two asymmetric carbon atoms

- Four forms of tartaric acid are known
- Two of them are optically active and two are optically inactive.
- The optically active forms are related to each other as a non-superimposable mirror image of each other. They are enantiomers.

Asymmetric Carbon Atom



Asymmetric Carbon Atom

Two Asymmetric Carbon Atoms in Tartaric acid

(+)-Tartaric Acid

It rotates the plane of polarized light to the left (anticlockwise direction) is called laevorotatory. (-) Tartaric acid is the mirror image of (+) tartaric acid and vice versa

(-)-Tartaric Acid

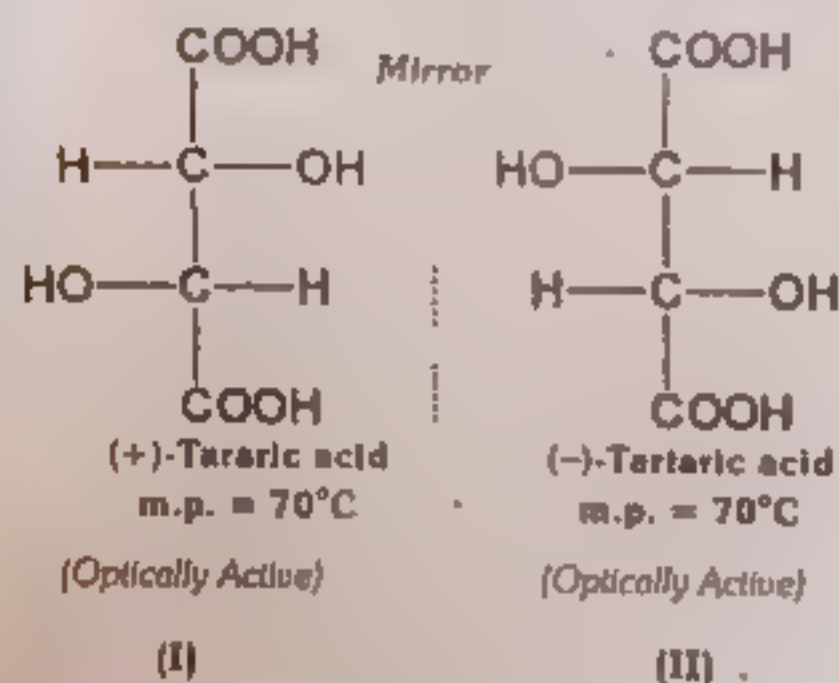
It rotates the plane of polarized light to the right (clockwise direction) is called dextrorotatory.

(±)-Tartaric Acid

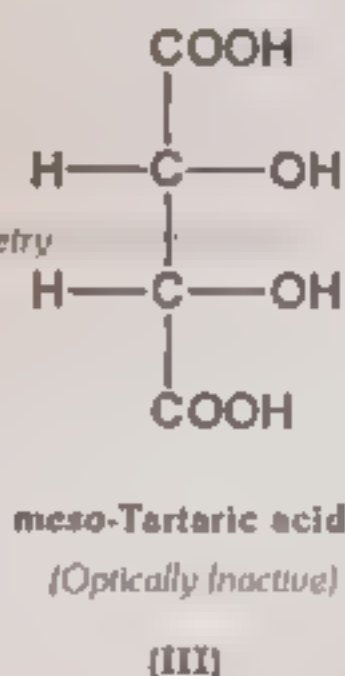
Does not rotate the plane of polarized light. Thus it is optically inactive. It is an equimolar mixture of (+) and (-) forms (racemic mixture)

meso-Tartaric Acid

It has a plane of symmetry. So it does not rotate the plane of polarized light. Thus it is optically inactive



Plane of Symmetry



Equimolar mixture of (+) and (-) forms is called racemic mixture. It is denoted as (±)

e.g. (±)-Tartaric acid
(Optically Inactive)

(IV)

Isomers of Tartaric Acid

Important!

- In isomers of tartaric acid, (I) and (II) are enantiomers
- However, (I) and (III) are called diastereomers. They are not mirror image of each other
- Similarly, (II) and (III) are also diastereomers

Diastereomers

Stereoisomers of the same compound which are not mirror image of each other are called diastereomers. Although enantiomers have same physical properties like melting points etc. The diastereomers are totally different compounds with different physical properties.

ISOMERISM & GEOMETRIC ISOMERISM

Geometrical isomerism (also called cis-trans isomerism) results from a restriction of rotation about double or about single bonds in cyclic compounds

GEOMETRICAL ISOMERISM IN ALKENES

The carbon atoms of the carbon-carbon double bond

The carbon-carbon double bond consists of a sigma bond and a pi bond

The sigma bond is formed by the overlapping of sp² orbitals

The pi bond is formed by the overlap of p orbitals

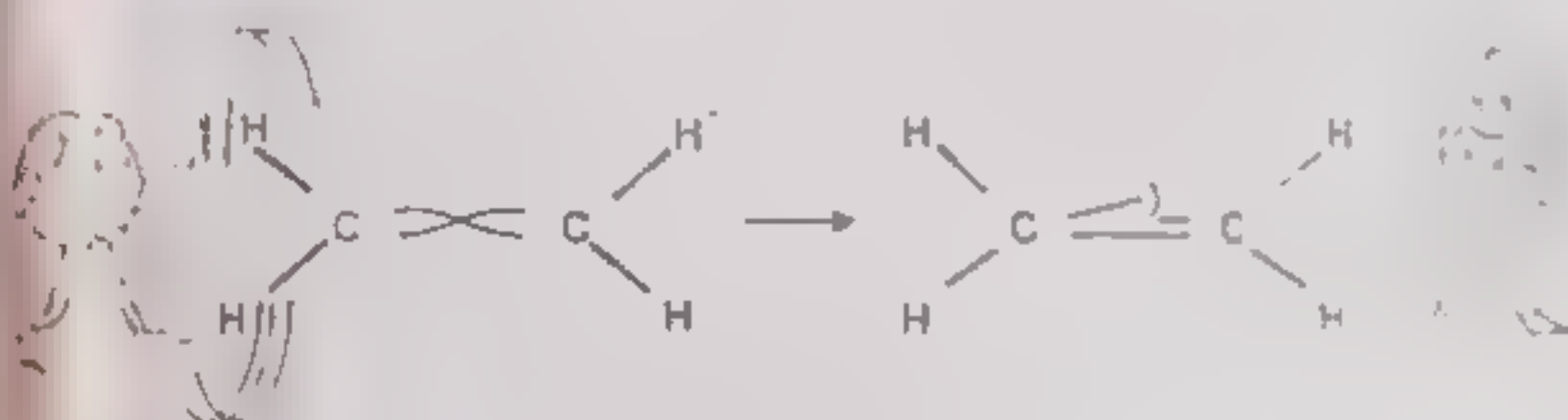
The presence of the pi bond locks the molecule in one position

The two carbon atoms of the C=C bond and the atoms attached to them

their position in space are fixed

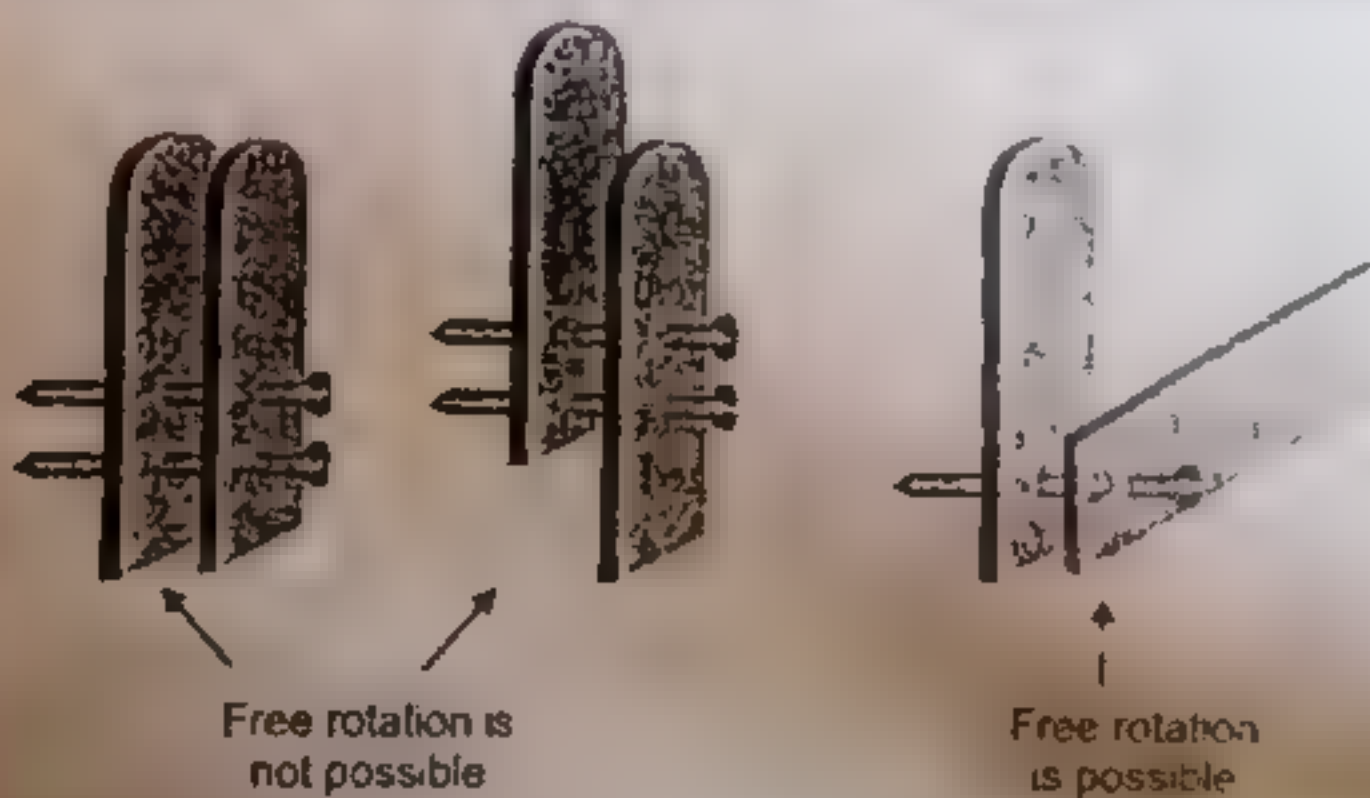
Rotation around the C=C bond is not possible because rotation would break the pi bond

The restriction of rotation about the carbon-carbon double bond is responsible for the isomerism in alkenes



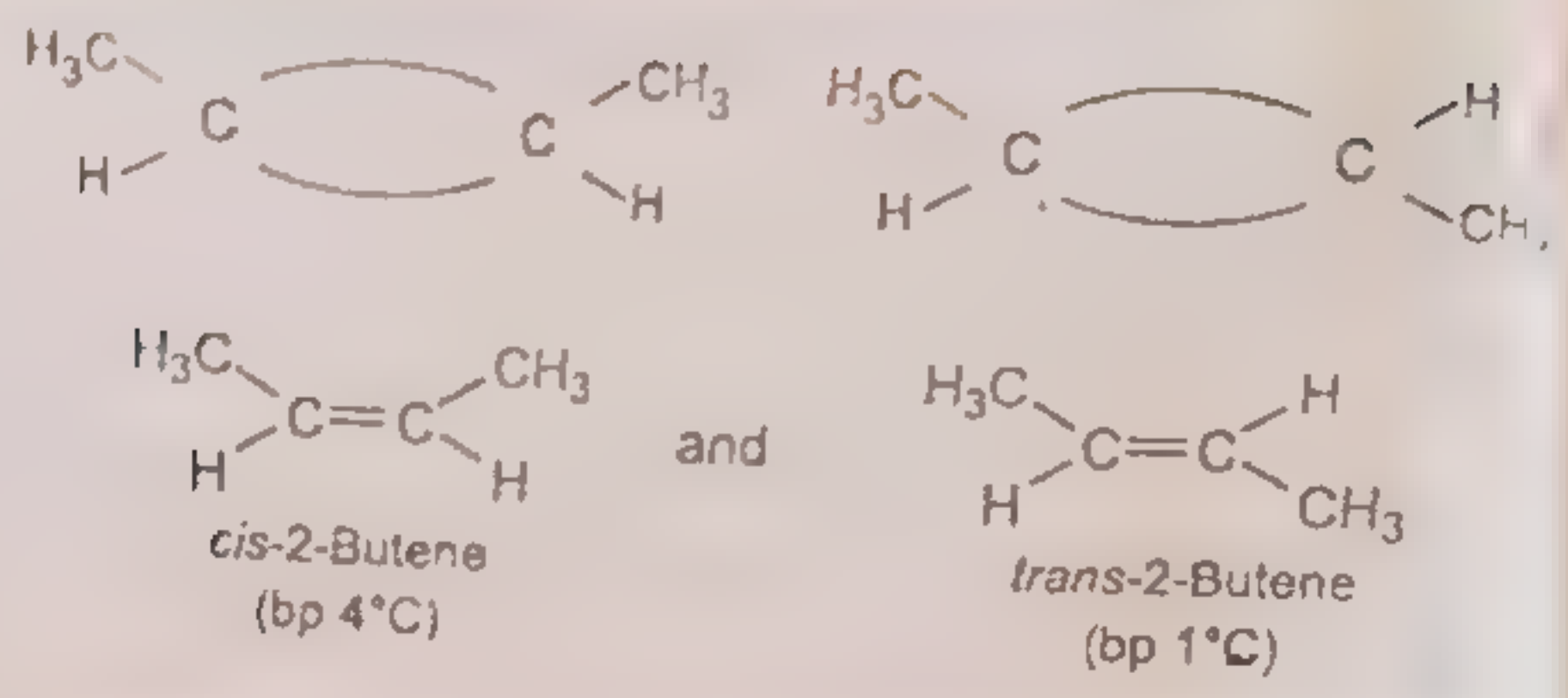
Rotation about pi bond is not possible because it would break the pi bond

A similar situation is based upon two bonds and two nails. If two boards are placed on two nails, free rotation of the two boards is possible. But once a second nail is used, the boards are locked together and free rotation is not possible.



Example

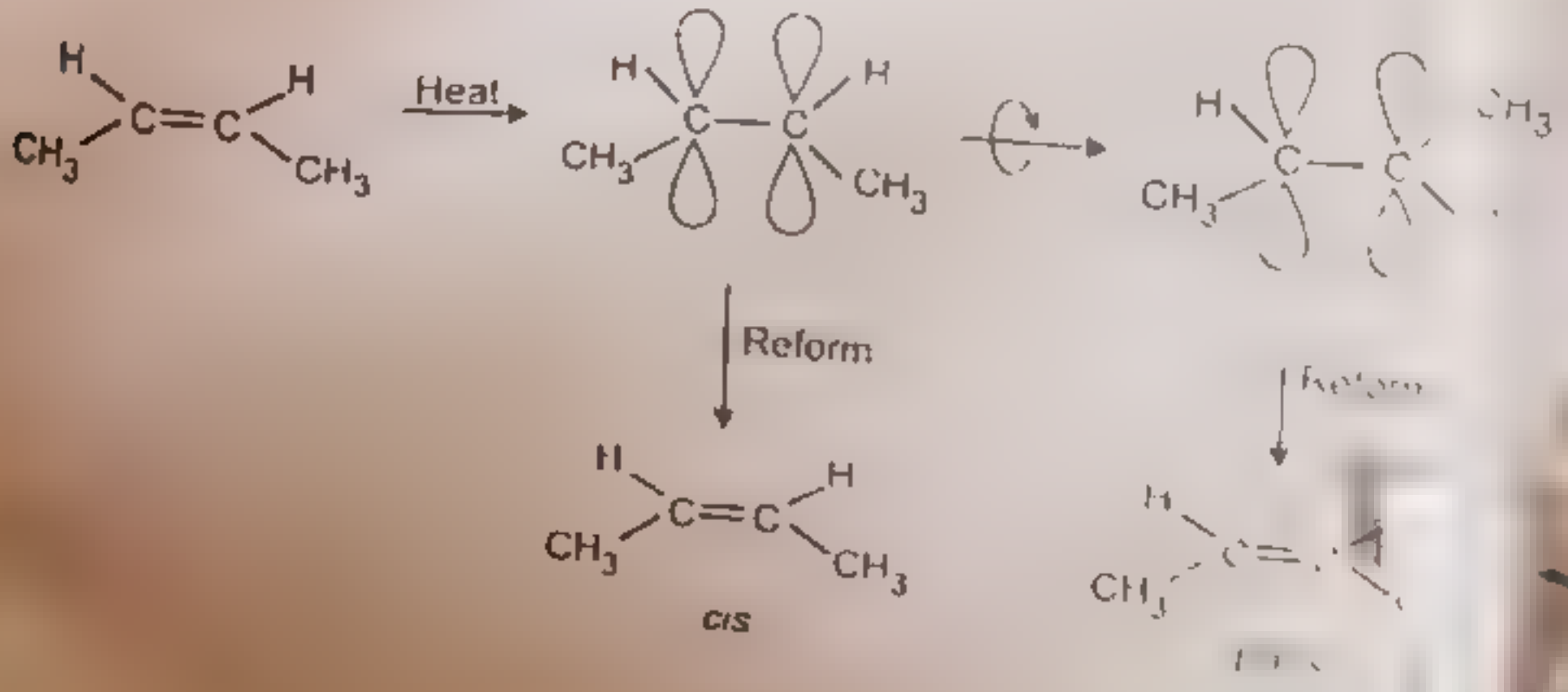
- Consider the case of 2-butene



- These two compounds are called as geometrical isomers. These are named as cis and trans. Hence, this type of isomerism is also called cis-trans isomerism.
- ✓ The cis isomer is one in which two similar groups are on the same side of the double bond.
- ✓ The trans isomer is that in which two similar groups are on the opposite sides of double bond.
- Geometrical isomers are stereoisomer, because they have the same structural formula but different arrangement of atoms.
- The geometrical isomers have different physical and chemical properties.
- They can be separated by conventional isomers have different physical techniques like fractional distillation and gas chromatography etc.

Inter-Conversion of cis-, trans-Isomers

- The conversion of cis-isomer into trans-isomer or vice versa is possible by heat or high temperature or absorbs light.
- The heat supplies the energy [about 62 Kcal/mole] to break the pi bond so that rotation about sigma bond becomes possible.
- Upon cooling, the reformation of the pi bond can take place in two ways giving mixture of trans-2-butene plus cis-2-butene.

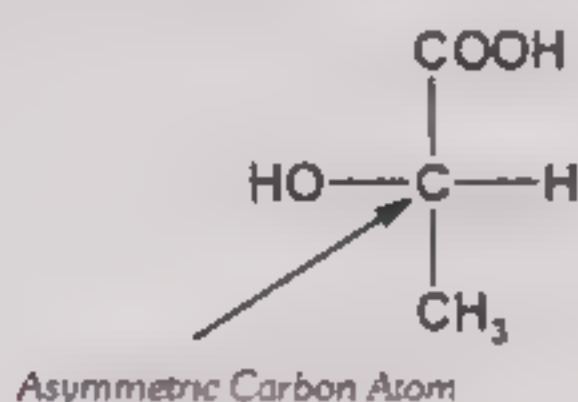


QUICK QUIZ-4

Define or explain the following terms

- (a) Structural isomerism Page 165
- (b) Stereoisomerisms Page 156, 159
- (c) Geometrical isomerism Page 161
- (d) Optical isomerism Page 159
- (e) Asymmetric carbon

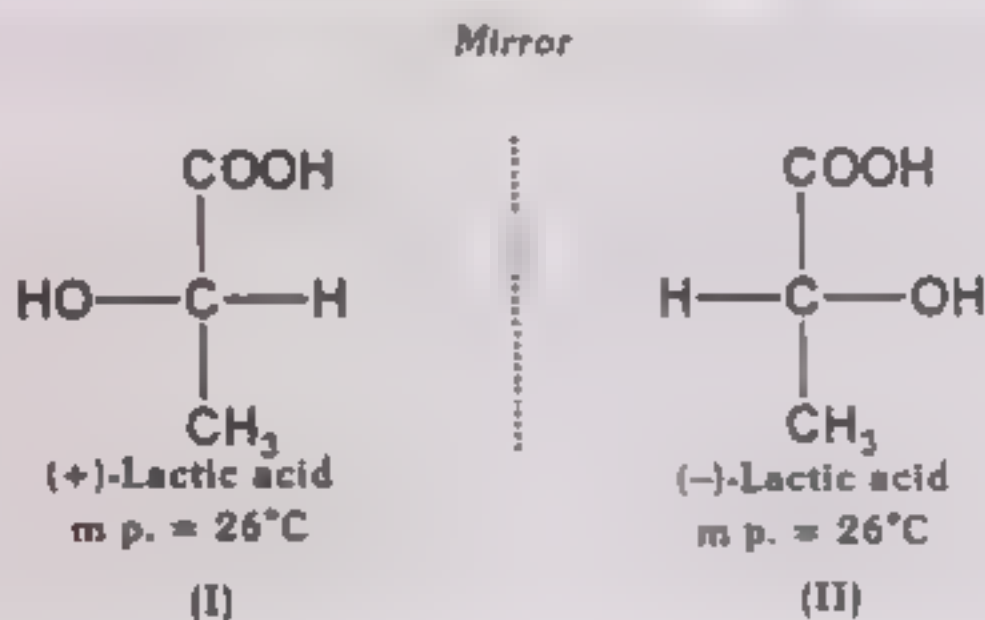
A carbon atom to which four different groups are attached is called an asymmetric carbon
Example:



(f) Chiral molecule

A molecule which has non-superimposable mirror image is called a chiral molecule

Example: Lactic acid



2. State the necessary condition for a compound to show geometrical isomerism. Illustrate your answer with examples

Conditions of Geometrical Isomerism

- (I) Presence of double bond or cyclic ring
- (II) Two different groups must be attached, to each carbon of double bond or to different carbons of cyclic ring

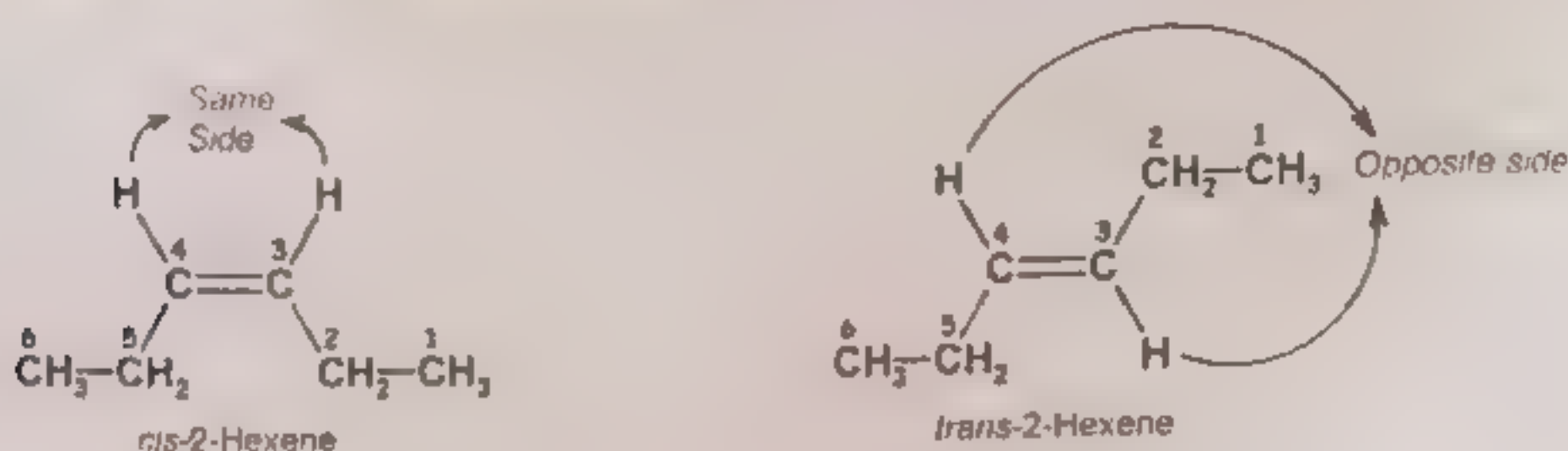
Example 1.

No geometrical isomers are possible for propene. It is because one of double bonded carbons has two identical groups (H atoms) attached to it.



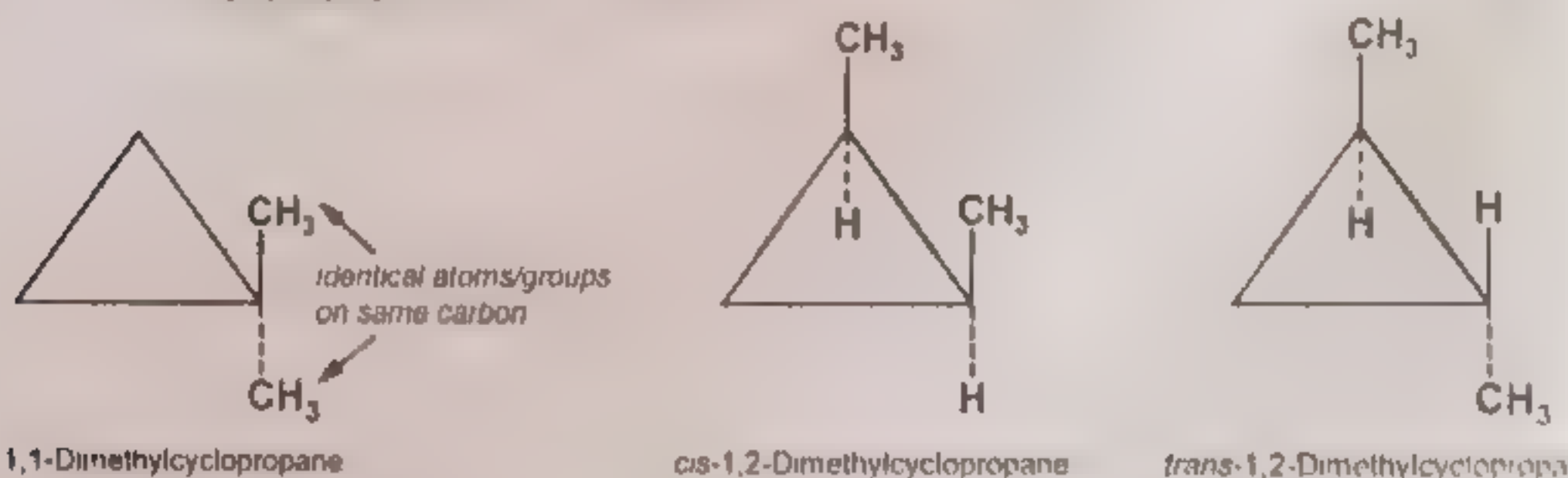
Example 2.

Geometrical isomers are possible for 3 hexene ($\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_2\text{CH}_3$). This is because each double carbon atom is attached to two different groups (CH_3CH_2 and H)



Example 3.

- No geometrical isomers are possible for 1,1-dimethylcyclopropane
- 1,2-dimethylcyclopropane exists in two isomeric forms

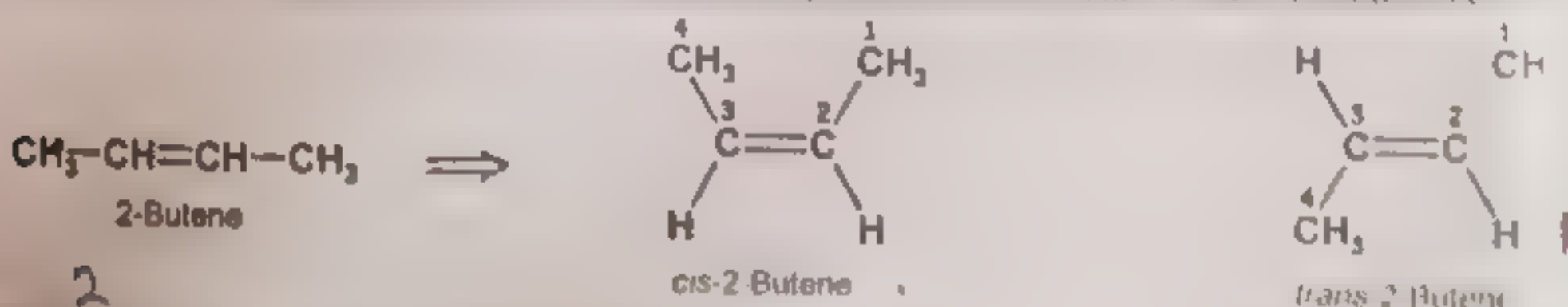


- In *cis*-1,2-dimethylcyclopropane the two methyl groups are on the same side of ring
- In *trans* 1,2-dimethylcyclopropane, they are on opposite sides

3. Which of the following compounds shows geometrical isomerism?

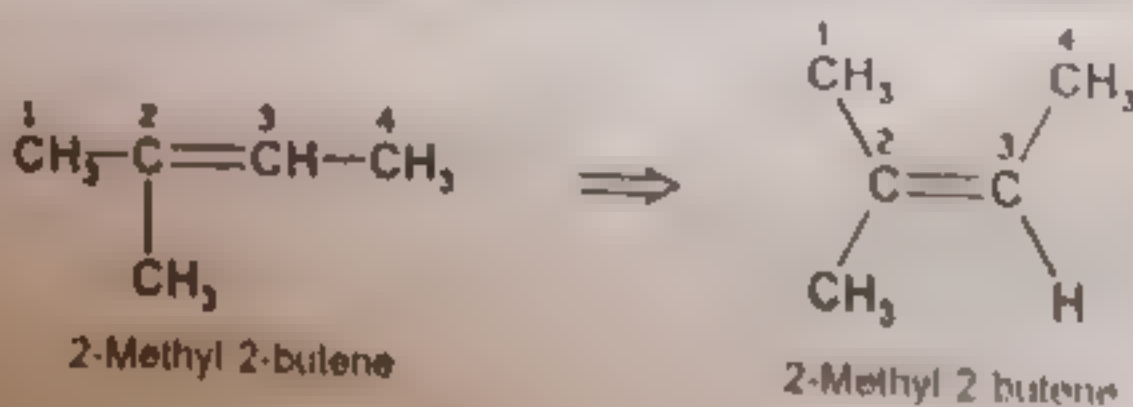
(a) 2-Butene

It will show geometrical isomerism since two different groups are attached to each C atom of double bond.



(b) 2-Methyl-Butene

It will not show geometrical isomerism since one carbon of double bond has two identical groups attached to it.



Unit 16: Hydrocarbons

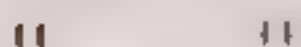
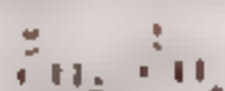
118

(c) 2-Pentene

It will show geometrical isomerism.

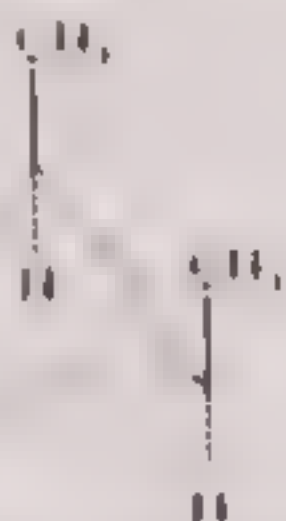


2-Pentene



(d) 1,2-Dichloropropane

It will show geometrical isomerism in the open chain form and in the cyclic form.



1,2-Dichloropropane



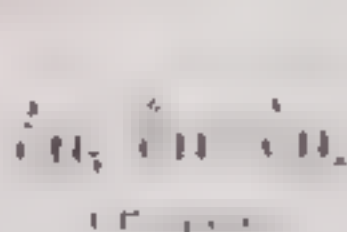
1,2-Dichloropropane

4. Which of the following compounds show isomerism?

(a) C_4H_{10} , C_4H_8 , C_4H_6

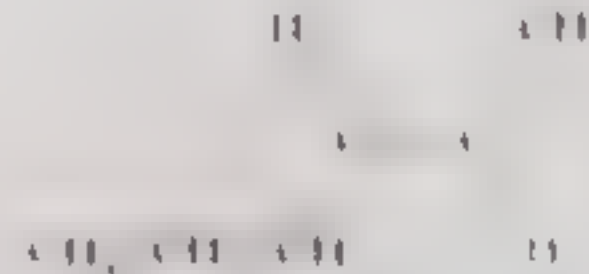
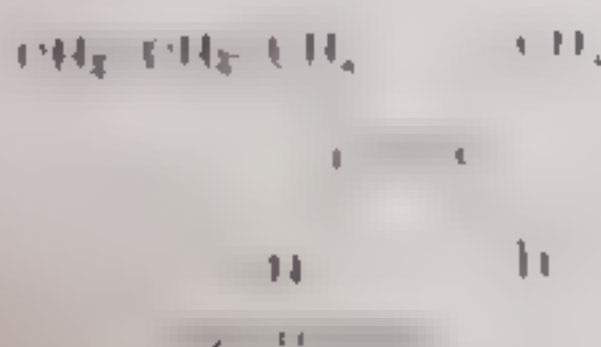
- It will not show geometrical isomerism as it is not a $\text{C}=\text{C}$ double bond compound.
- It will not show optical isomerism as it is not a chiral compound.

NOTE: It will show structural isomerism as it can form 2 different structures with different structures and properties. Both are called isomers.

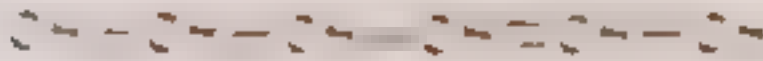


(b) C_4H_8 , C_4H_{10} , C_4H_6 , C_4H_4

- It will not show optical isomerism as it is not a chiral compound.
- It will show geometrical isomerism as it is a $\text{C}=\text{C}$ double bond compound.



II



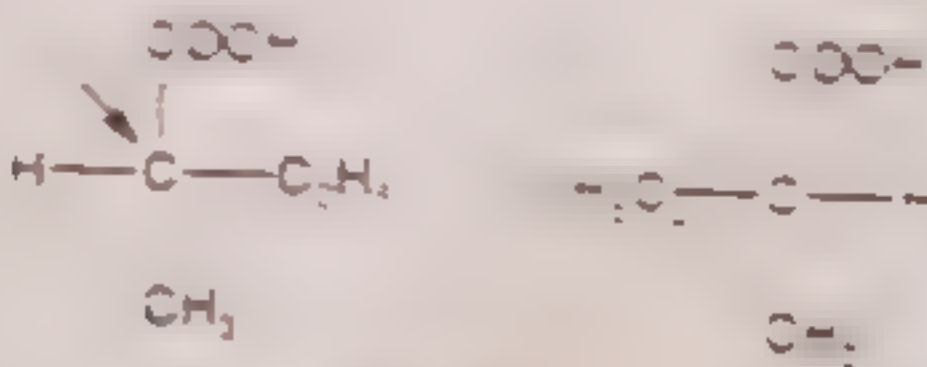
5. What is the difference between cis and trans isomers?

6. What is the difference between cis and trans isomers?

7. What is the difference between cis and trans isomers?

8. An acid of formula $\text{C}_4\text{H}_8\text{O}_2$ is optically active. What is its structure?

Asymmetric carbon



Interconversion of Enantiomers

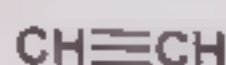
9. How does cis-isomer convert into trans-isomer?
Page 162

10. The trans-isomer is more stable. Why?
Page 163

ALKYNES

I.U.P.A.C. NOMENCLATURE

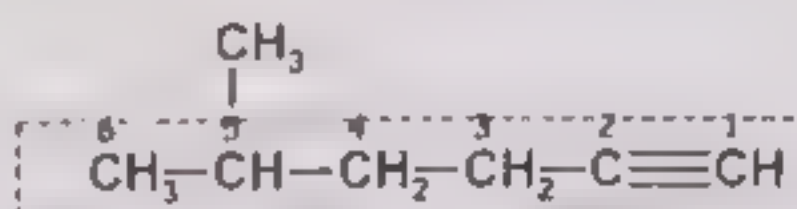
- (1) The parent hydrocarbon is the continuous chain containing triple bond
- (2) The ending 'ane' of the alkane is changed by -yne



Ethyne

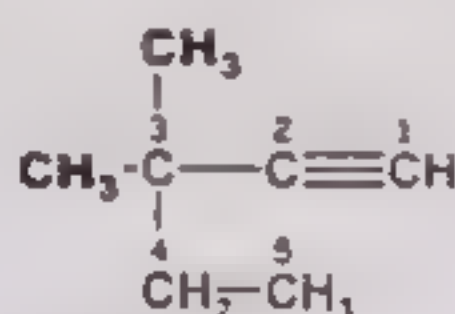


Propyne



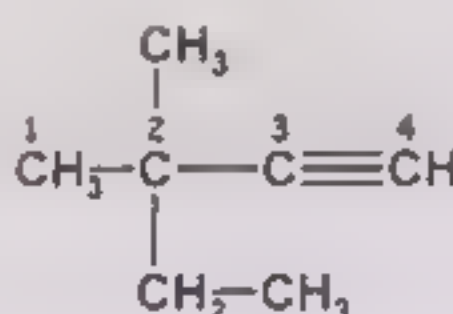
5-Methyl-1-hexyne

- (3) The main chain is numbered starting from the terminal carbon nearer to the triple bond



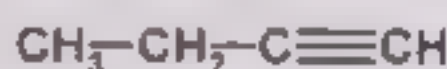
3,3-Dimethyl-1-pentyne

(Correct)



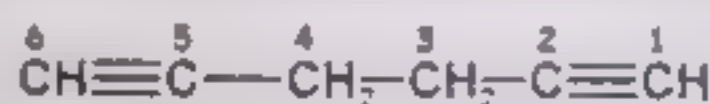
(Incorrect)

- (4) Triple bond is given the number of the lower carbon atom attached to triple bond separated by hyphen



1-Butyne

- (5) If two or more triple bonds are there in the molecule use the prefixes di-, tri-, etc

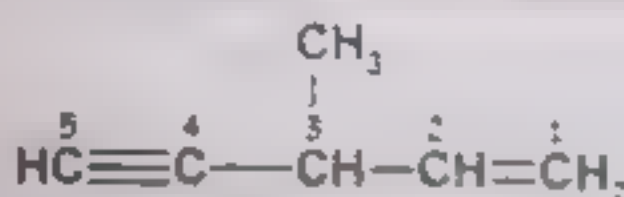


1,5-Hexadiene

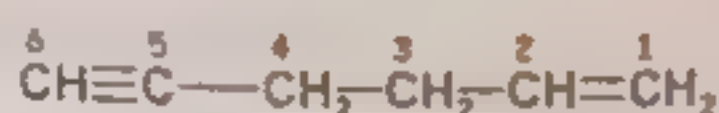
- (6) Alkyl groups are indicated by the methods described while naming alkanes

NAMING OF MOLECULES CONTAINING BOTH THE DOUBLE AND TRIPLE BONDS

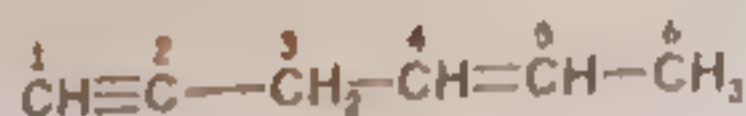
- (1) The suffix 'ene' is used to denote the presence of Double bond
- (2) the suffix -yne to denote the presence of triple bond
- (3) The suffix '-ene' always precedes -yne in the name of compound when the double bond is at the large number
- (4) The position number for the double bond is placed before the name of the compound
- (5) The position number of triple bond is placed before the name of the compound
- (6) If same number would result from each terminal the double bond is at the lower number



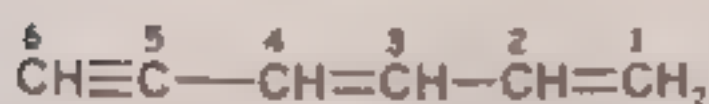
3-Methyl-1-penten-4-yne



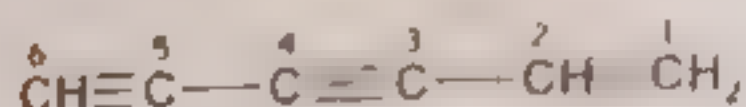
1-Hexen-5-yne



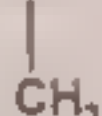
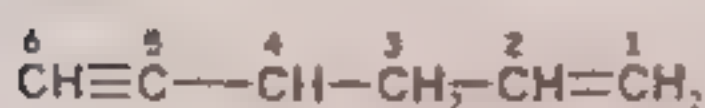
4-Hexen-1-yne



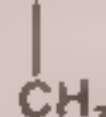
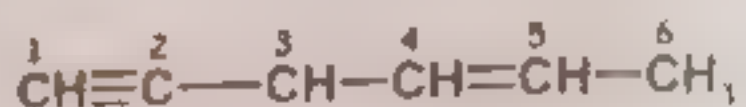
1,3-Hexadien-5-yne



1-Hexene-3,5-diyne



4-Methyl-1-hexen-5-yne



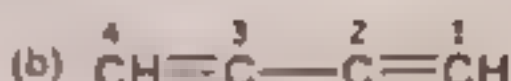
3-Methyl-4-hexen-1-yne

ACTIVITY

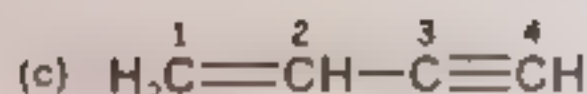
Give the IUPAC name of the following



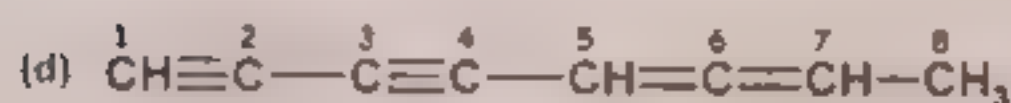
1-Propyne



1,3-Butadiyne



1-Buten-3-yne



5,6-Octadiene-1,3-diyne



3-Hexyne

RELATIVE STABILITY

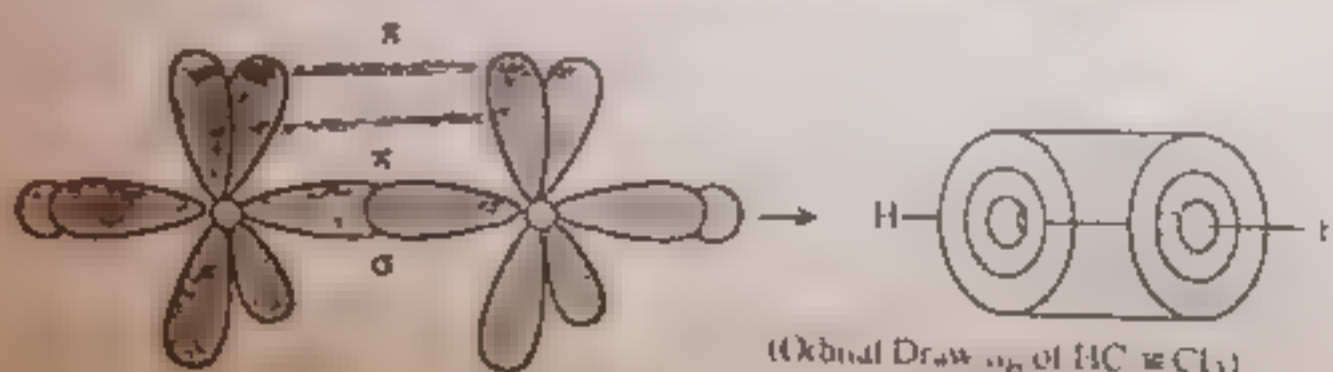
Alkynes are more stable as compared to alkenes due to the presence of extra pi bond. That's why alkynes are less reactive than alkenes.

This can be supported by the thermodynamic data of alkynes and alkenes, i.e.

ΔH of 1-Hexyne = 290 kJ/mol while ΔH of 1-Hexene = 126 kJ/mol. Thus, alkynes require more energy.

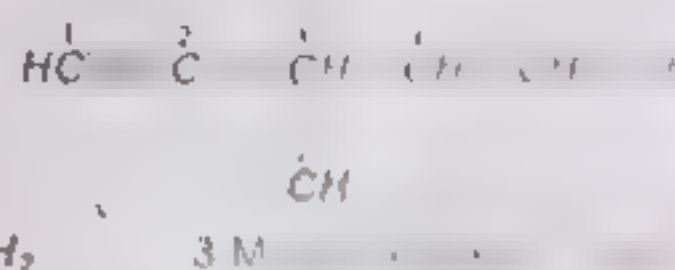
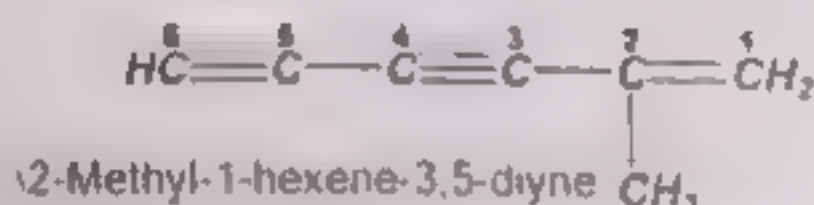
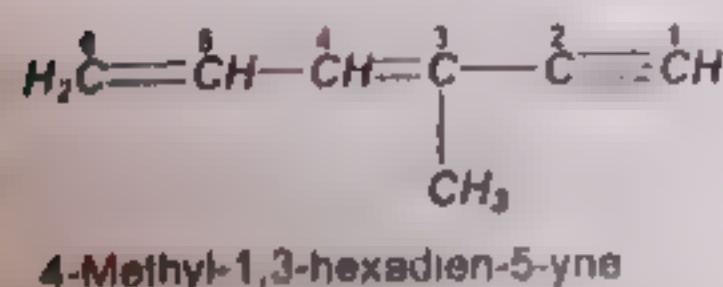
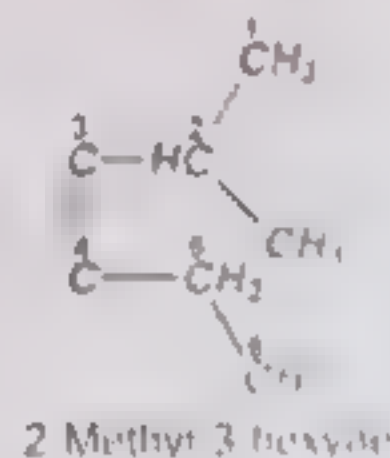
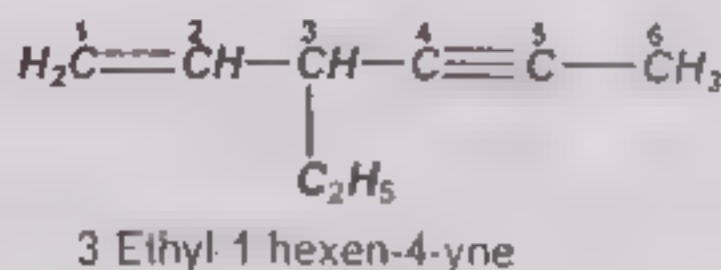
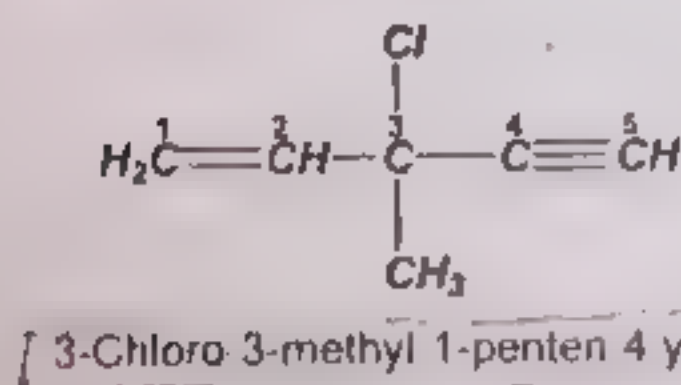
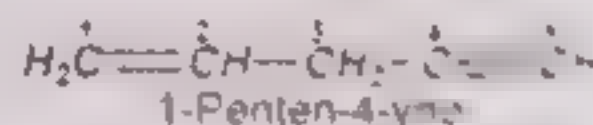
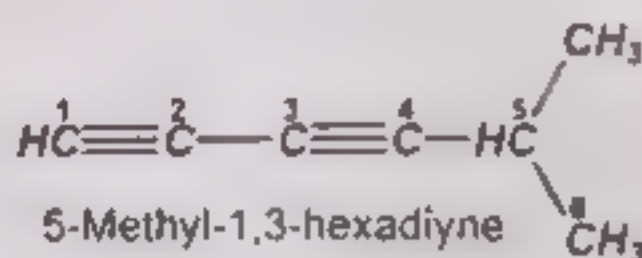
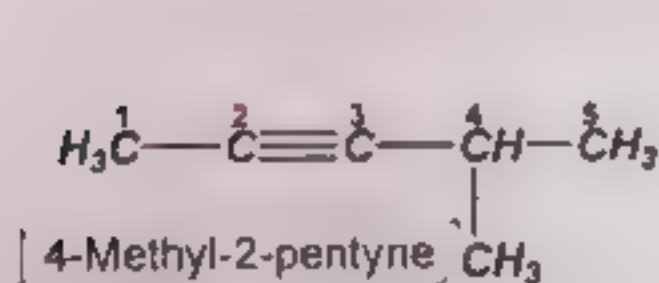
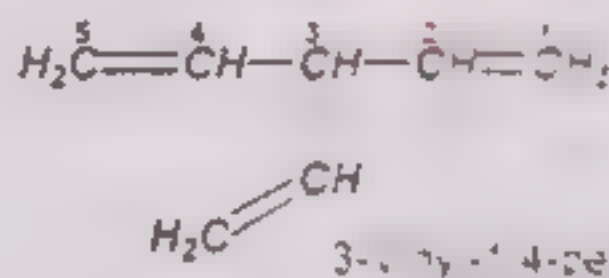
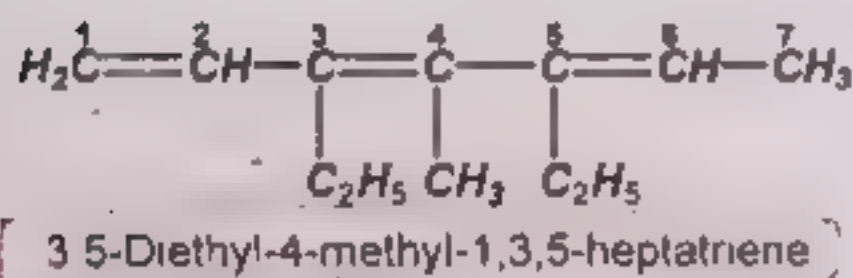
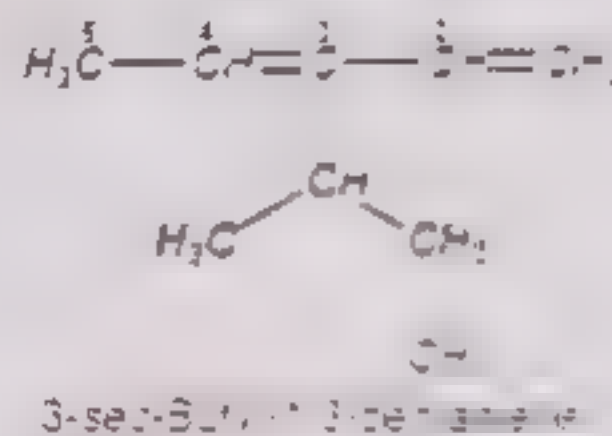
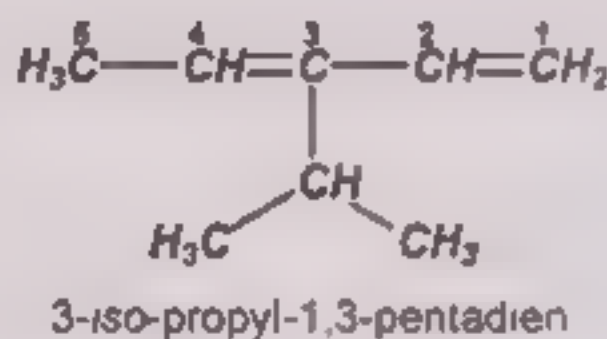
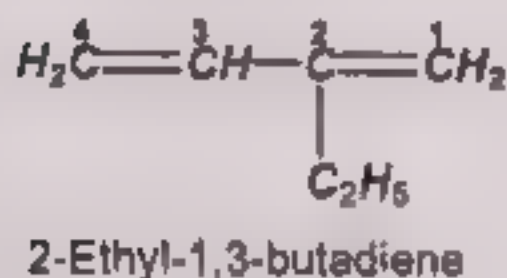
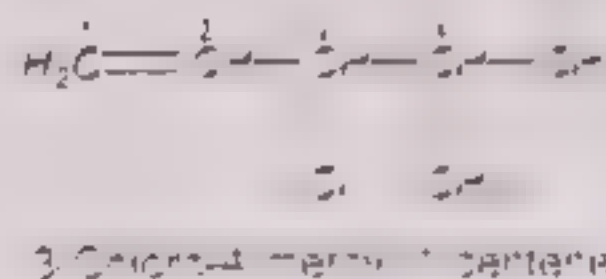
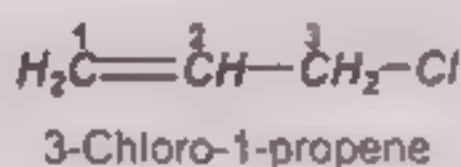
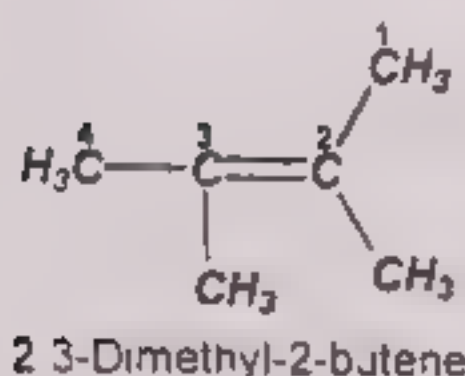
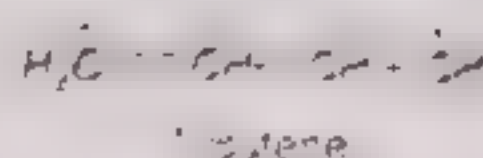
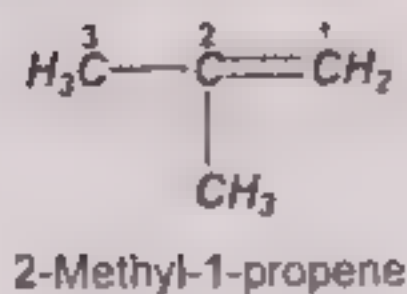
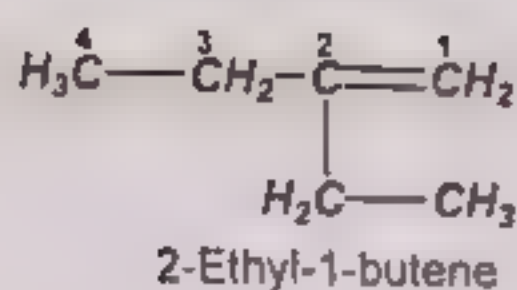
STRUCTURE

- The two carbons of acetylene (alkyne) are sp hybridized. They are linked by a sigma bond due to $sp-sp$ orbital overlap.
- The unhybridized two p -orbitals on one carbon overlap with two p -orbitals on other carbon to form π -bonds.
- The cloud of π -electrons is present cylindrically symmetrical about the carbon-carbon sigma-bond.



- Rotation about carbon-carbon sigma bond does not cause any change in energy and electron density. Hence, linear molecule, and hence geometrical isomer is not observed in it.

MORE PRACTICE



PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

Alkynes are non-polar and are insoluble in water but soluble in non-polar organic solvents.

PREPARATION OF ALKYNES BY ELIMINATION REACTIONS

Alkynes can be prepared by the following methods

- Elimination reaction
- Alkylation of sodium acetylide

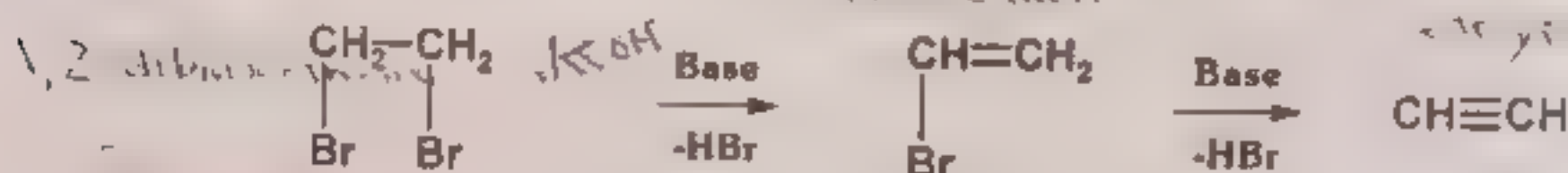
(i) ELIMINATION OF HYDROGEN HALIDE (DEHYDROHALOGENATION):

The removal of hydrogen and halogen from a molecule is called dehydrohalogenation.

Alkynes can be prepared by dehydrohalogenation of vicinal and geminal dihalides in the presence of alkaline reagents.

(a) Dehydrohalogenation of Vicinal Dihalides

- A vicinal dihalide contains two halogen atoms on adjacent carbon atoms.



- Higher alkynes are also formed in the presence of alcoholic KOH, e.g.,



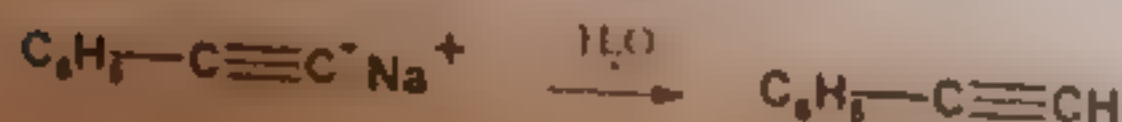
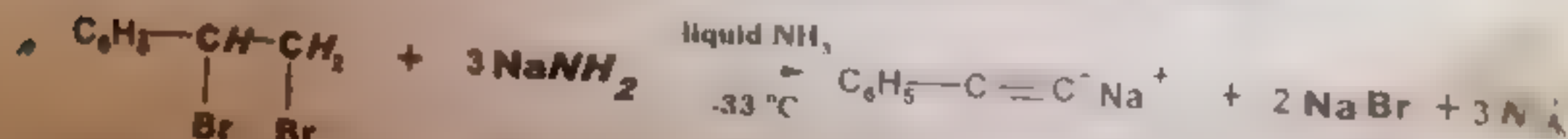
- In the presence of strong base such as KOH and at high temperature triple bond formation takes place to give more substituted alkyne.



- Therefore alcoholic KOH is useful when rearrangement is not possible.

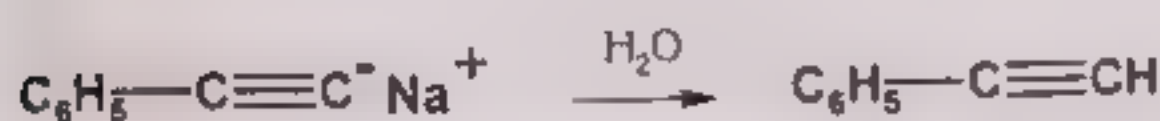
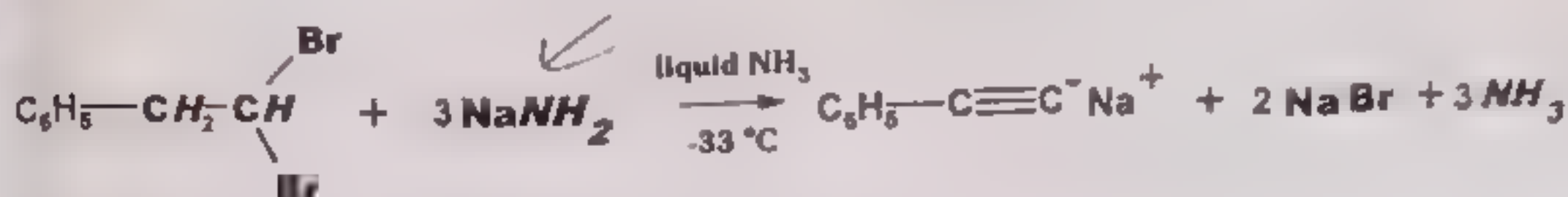


- 1-alkynes can be prepared from vic-dihalides with sodium amide.



(a) Dehydrohalogenation of Geminal Dihalides

A dihalide containing two halogen atoms linked with the same carbon atom, on treatment with a strong base gives alkyne, e.g.,



(III) ALKYLATION OF SODIUM ACETYLIDE

The sodium salt of alkyne can be reacted with an alkyl halide to give bigger alkyne

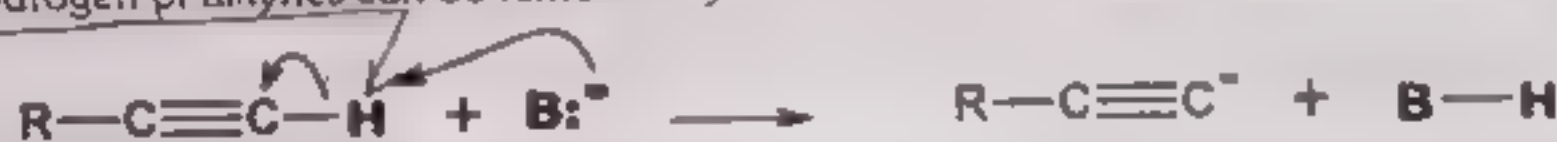


REACTIVITY

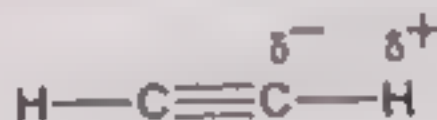
- Acetylene (alkyne) is an unsaturated hydrocarbon and shows addition reactions.
- It also undergoes substitution reactions due to easy cleavage of C-H bond.
- The π -electrons are present cylindrically symmetrical about carbon-carbon sigma bond and the removal of terminal hydrogen is possible without disturbing carbon-carbon bonding. Thus electrophilic substitution reactions are possible in acetylene and 1-alkynes (terminal alkynes).

(A) - ACIDITY OF TERMINAL ALKYNES

The acidic hydrogen of alkynes can be removed by a base (



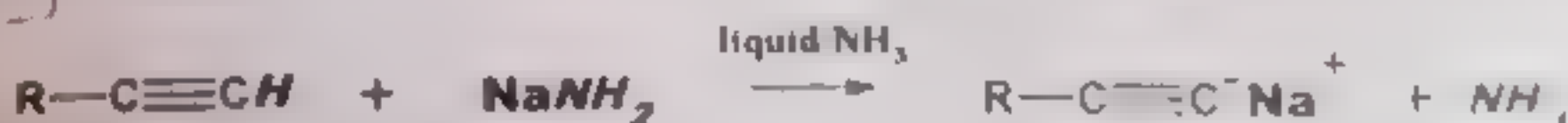
- In ethyne and other terminal alkynes like propyne, the hydrogen atom is bonded to the carbon atoms with sp overlap.
- An sp hybrid orbital has 50% s-character in it and makes the carbon atoms more electronegative. Thus the sp -hybridized carbon atom of a terminal alkyne pulls the electrons more strongly, making the attached hydrogen atom slightly acidic.



- This H^+ can be substituted with metal. Thus substitution reaction occurs due to H^+ .

Examples:

- When 1 alkyne or ethyne is treated with sodamide in liquid ammonia, a substituted sodium acetylide is obtained.



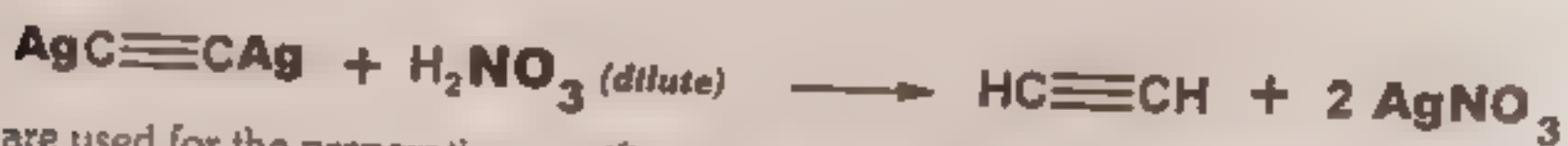
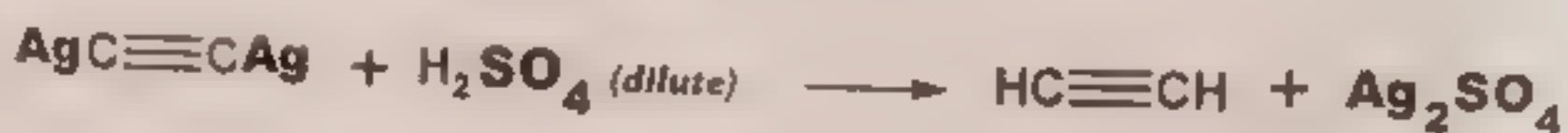
Sodium acetylide is a very valuable reagent for chemical synthesis.

- (ii) Acetylides of copper and silver are obtained by passing acetylene in the ammoniacal solution of copper chloride and silver nitrate respectively



Thus, these reaction can be used to detect 1 alkynes (terminal alkynes)

- Silver and copper acetylides react with acids to regenerate alkynes.



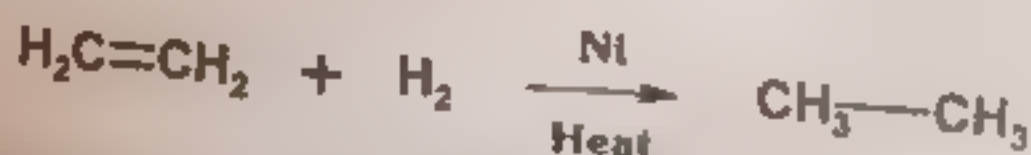
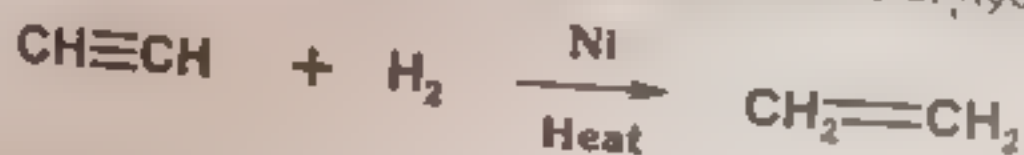
These alkynides are used for the preparation, purification separation, and identification of alkynes

(B) ADDITION REACTIONS OF ALKYNES

- Alkynes undergo addition reactions just like alkenes
- The high electron density of the π -bonds makes them nucleophilic.
- Two factors influence the relative reactivity of alkynes compared to alkenes:
 - increased nucleophilicity of the starting p system, and
 - stability of any intermediates (for example carbocations)

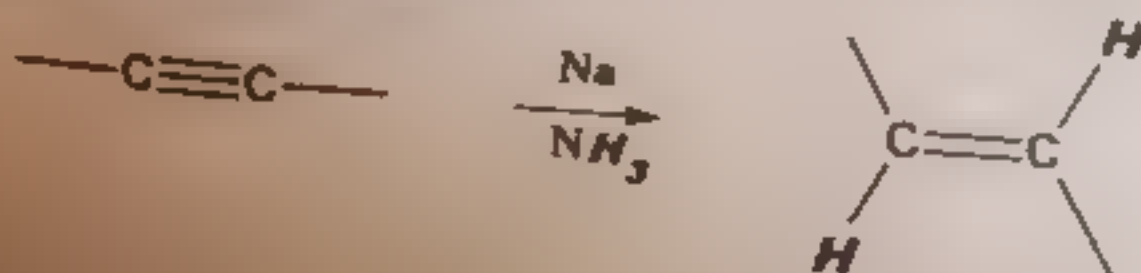
(1) HYDROGENATION

- Alkynes react with hydrogen gas in the presence of suitable catalysts like finely divided Ni, Pt or P
- In the first step alkenes are formed which then take up another molecule of hydrogen to form an alkane



(2) DISSOLVING METAL REDUCTION

Alkynes can be reduced to *trans*-alkenes using Na in $\text{NH}_3 (\text{liq})$



Remember!

Hydrogenation is syn-addition

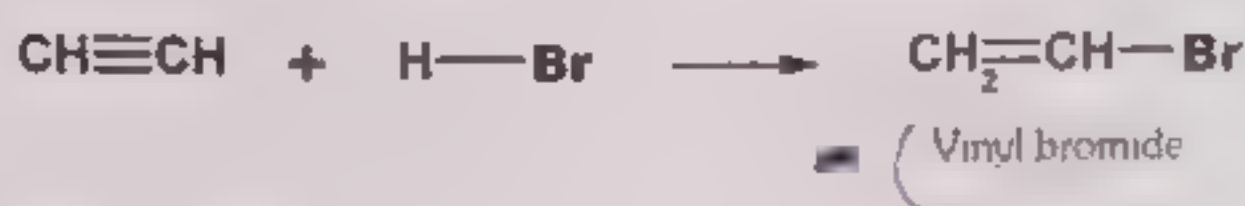
Dissolving metal reduction is anti-addition

• • A hydroboration

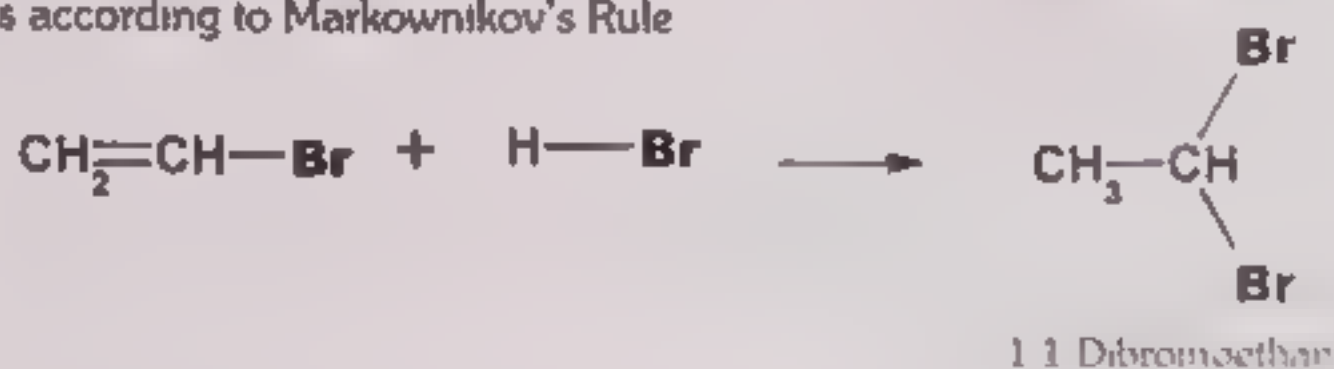
- This reaction is stereoselective because it gives only the *trans*-alkene via an *anti* addition
- The reaction proceeds via single electron transfer from the Na with H coming from the NH_3
- The stereochemistry of this reaction is opposite to that of catalytic hydrogenation *syn*-addition
- These reaction conditions do not reduce alkenes, hence the product is the alkene

(3) HYDROHALOGENATION

Alkynes react with hydrogen chloride and hydrogen bromide to form dihaloalkenes. The reaction occurs in accordance with Markownikov's rule

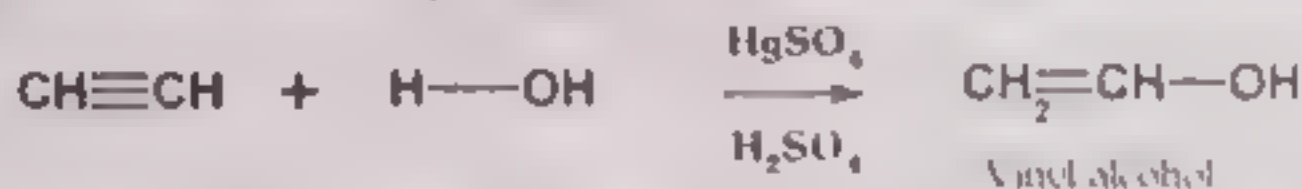


Second addition is according to Markownikov's Rule



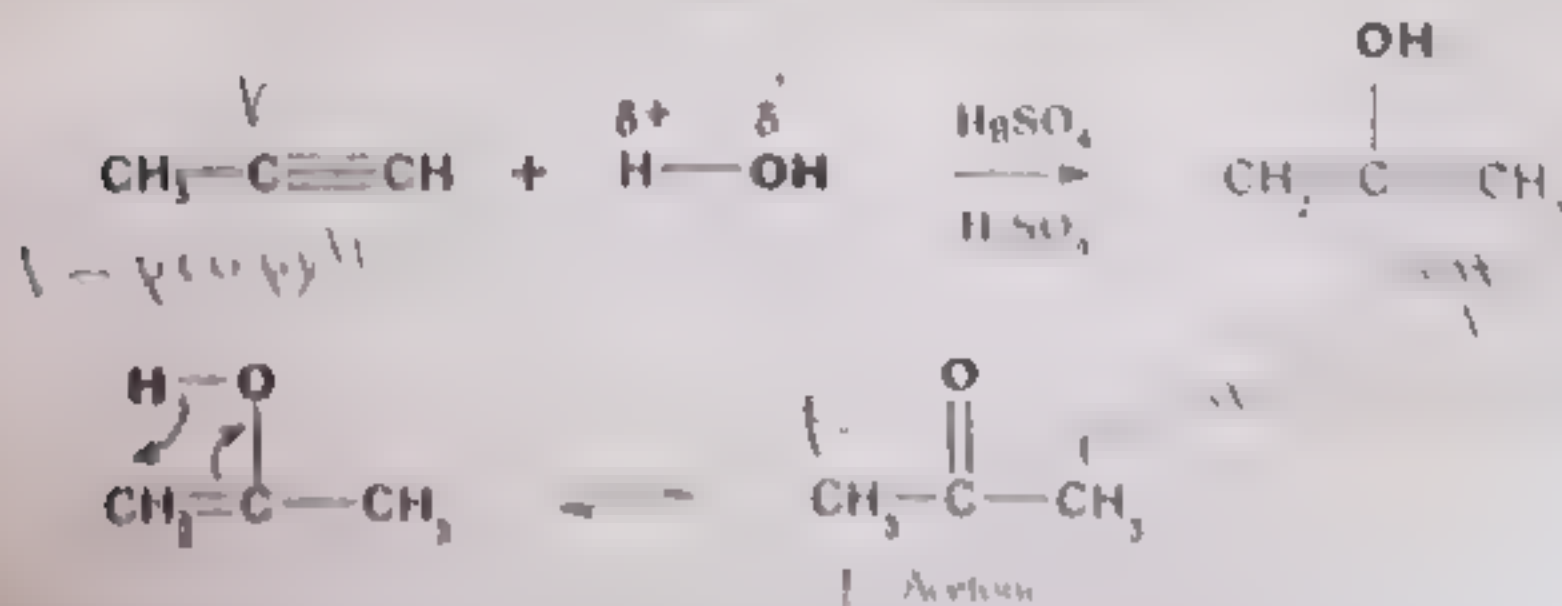
(4) HYDRATION

Water adds to acetylene in the presence of mercuric sulphate dissolved in sulphuric acid



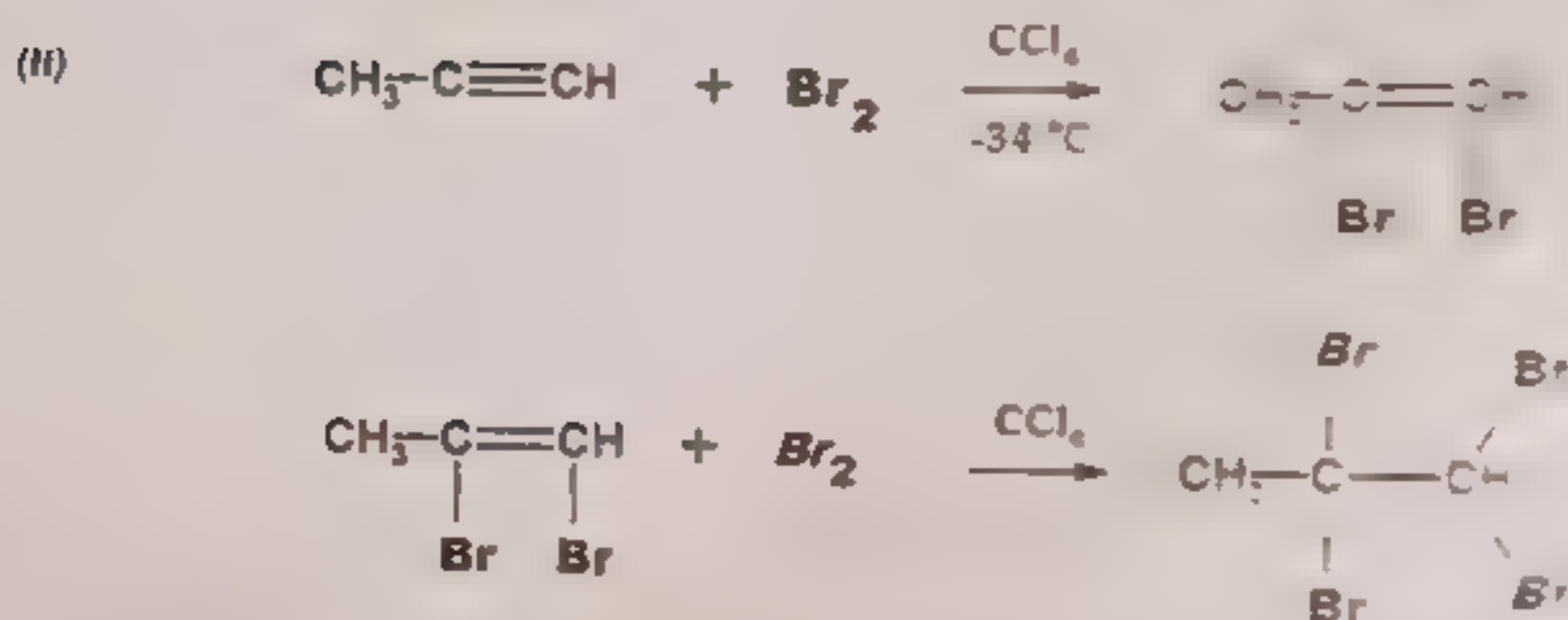
Rearrangement of Alcohol

Vinyl alcohol is unstable. It has the hydroxyl group attached to a double bonded carbon. It rearranges to acetaldehyde



This reaction is industrially important because aldehydes can be prepared

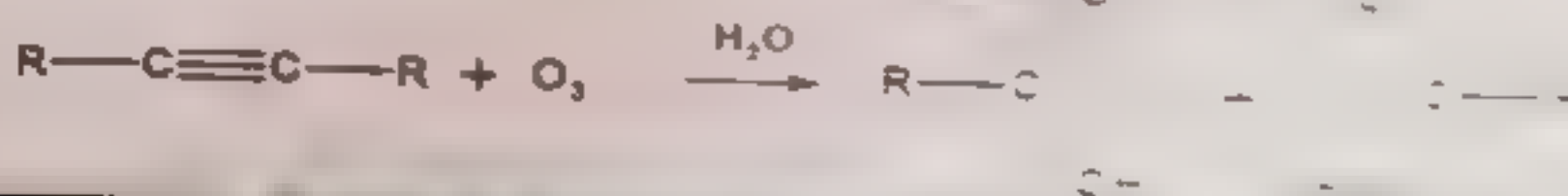
Chlorine and bromine add to the double bond to form a



The Halogenation may be stopped at the dihaloalkene stage, as the dihaloalkene is less nucleophilic than even triple bond itself

(6) OZONOLYSIS

When ozone reacts with alkyne followed by aqueous work up

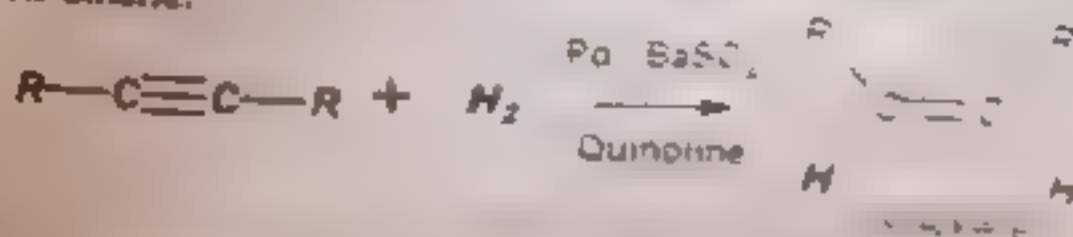


QUICK QUIZ-5

What are reducing agent would you use to convert an alkene to
(ii) cis-Alkene

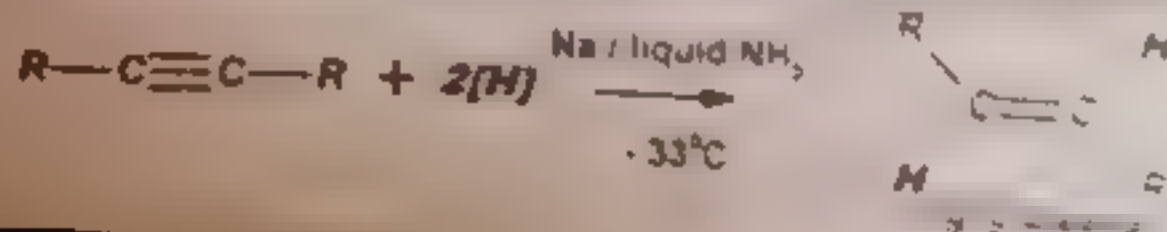
(1) **cis-Alkene**

The catalyst is finely divided Pd supported on BaSO_4 .
The product is cis-alkene.



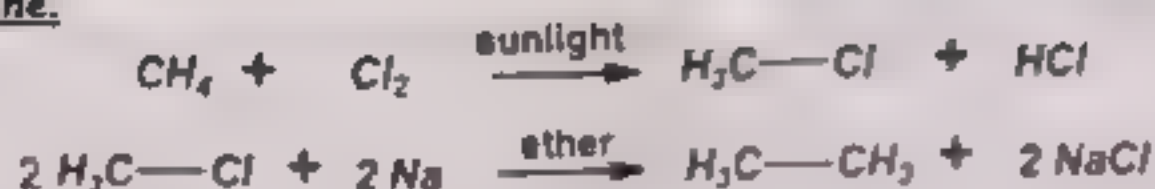
(II) trans-Alkene

It can also be done by treating alkynes with $\text{Na}^+ \text{ } ^-\text{N}_3$.

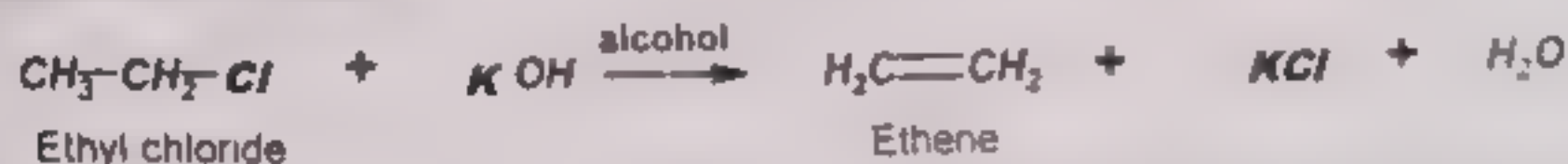


SOME IMPORTANT CONVERSIONS

(i) Methane to Ethane.



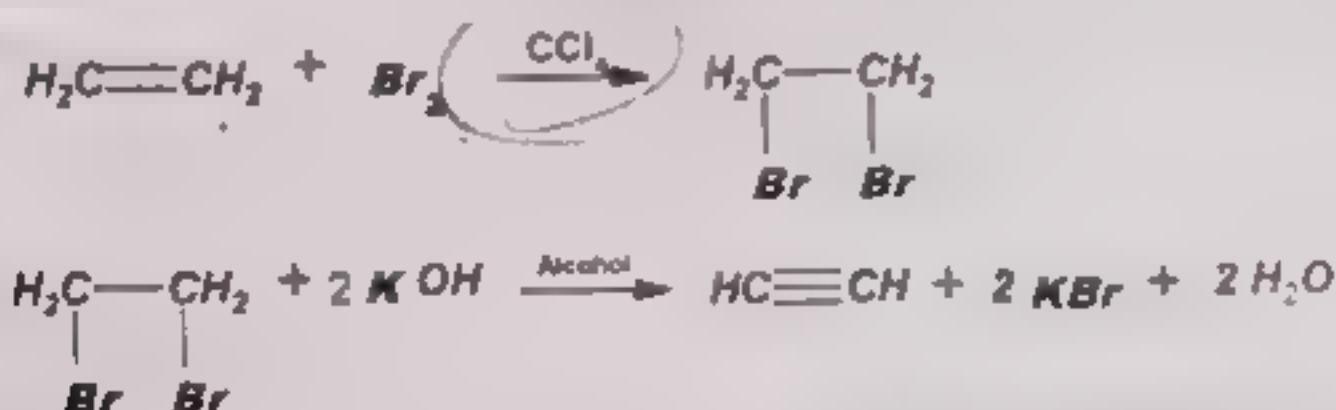
(ii) Ethyl chloride to ethene.



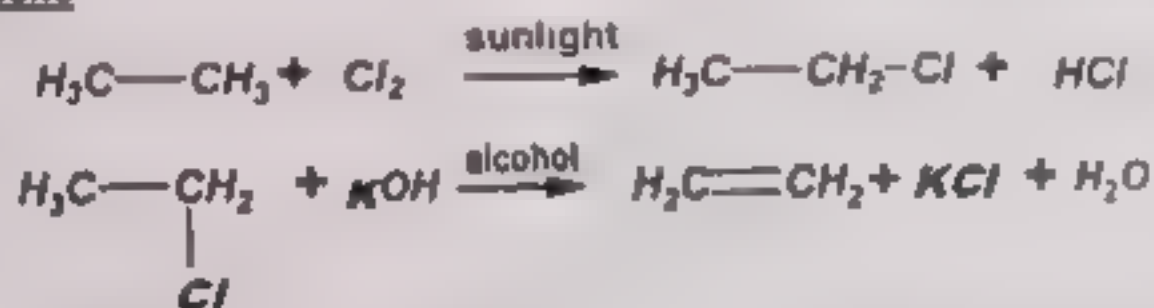
(iii) Ethene to ethyl alcohol



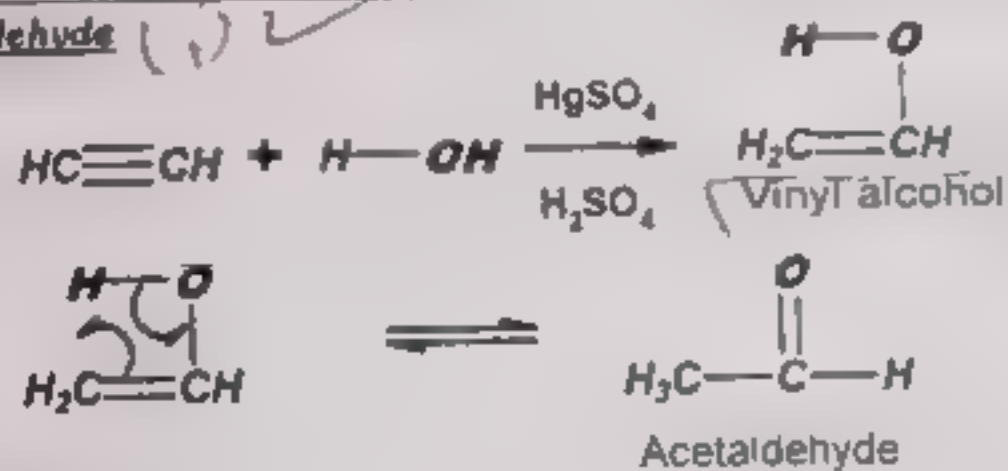
(iv) Ethene to ethyne



(v) Ethane to Ethene

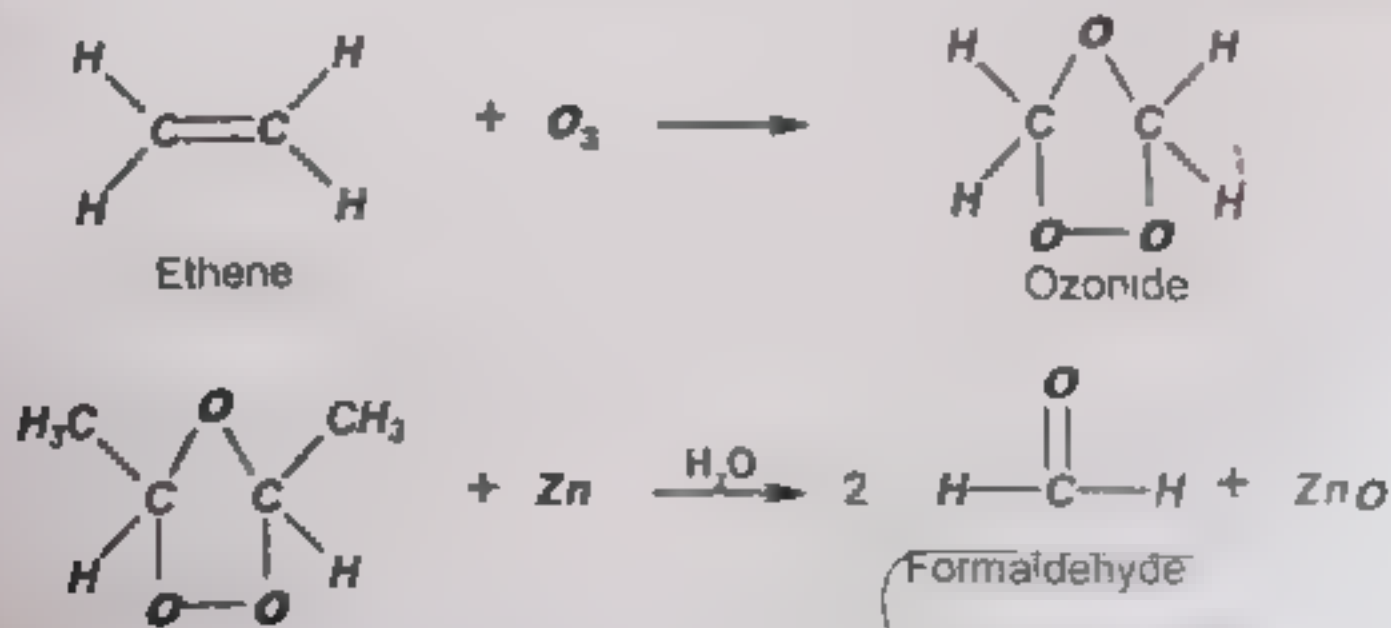


(vi) Ethyne to Acetaldehyde



Similarly Propyne to Acetone

(vii) Ethene to formaldehyde



BENZENE AND SUBSTITUTED BENZENES

Important Information

Discovered by:	Michael Faraday
Isolated by:	Hoffmann
Molecular Formula:	C_6H_6
Molecular weight:	78 g mol ⁻¹
Special Features:	(i) Resonance (ii) Electrophilic Substitution Reactions

- Michael Faraday discovered benzene in 1825 during the destructive distillation of vegetable oil.
- Hoffmann isolated it from coal tar.
- As a functional group, benzene and substituted benzenes are called **arenes**.

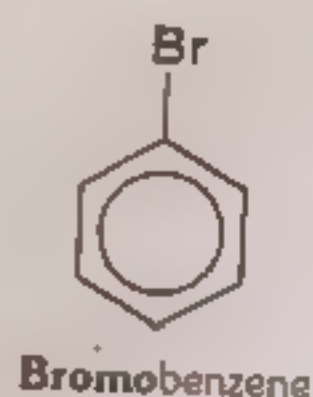
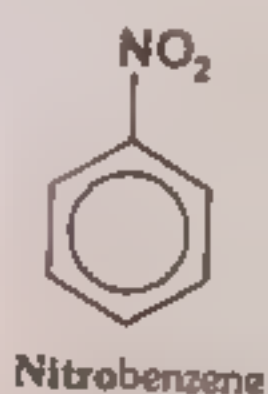
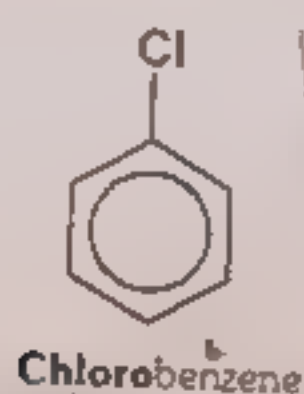
NOMENCLATURE

MONOSUBSTITUTED BENZENES

(a) Common System Naming:

The following procedures are adopted for naming mono-substituted benzenes.

- Parent name is benzene and the substituent is indicated by a prefix, e.g.

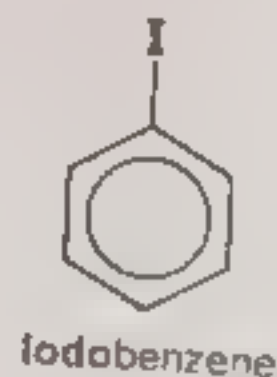
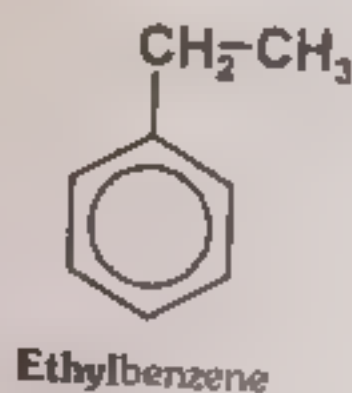
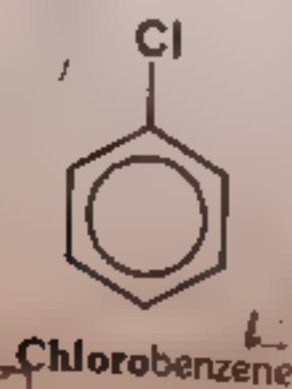


- The substituent and the benzene ring taken together may form a new parent name. The largest part is preferred e.g., $C_6H_5CH_3$ may be named as (i) Methyl benzene, (ii) Phenyl methane. According to the "largest rule" methyl benzene is preferred (Since benzene is the larger parent than methane).

(b) IUPAC System of Naming:

- Mono-substituted derivatives of benzene are named by prefixing the name of substituted to the "benzene".

Example:



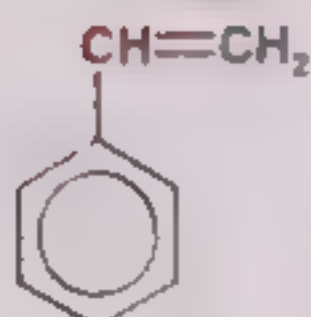
- Many aromatic compounds have been known by their common or trivial names which are still in use. I.U.P.A.C system retains these names. A few are given below:



Toluene



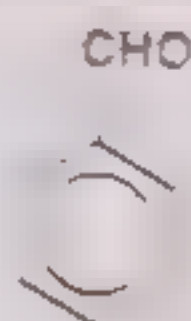
Aniline



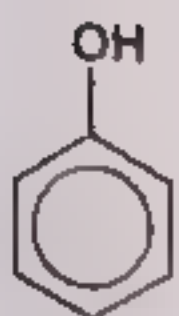
Styrene



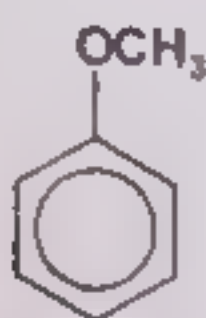
Benzoic acid



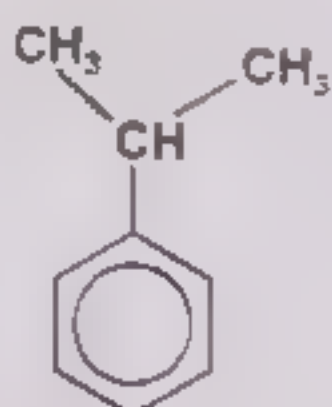
Benzaldehyde



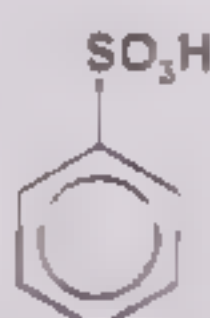
Phenol



Anisole



Cumene



Benzenesulfonic acid

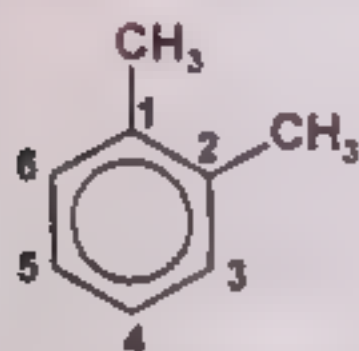


Acetophenone

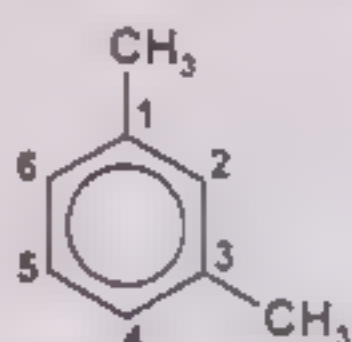
DISTRIBUTED BENZENE

(1) When there are two substituents on benzene ring their relative positions are indicated

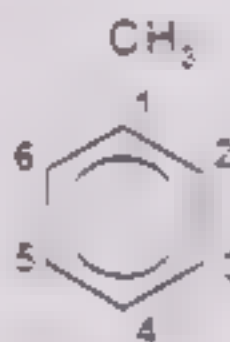
- by prefixes **ortho (o)**, **meta (m)** and **para (p)** in common system of naming and
- by numerals while naming according to IUPAC system



o-Dimethylbenzene
(1,2-Dimethylbenzene)
(o-Xylene)

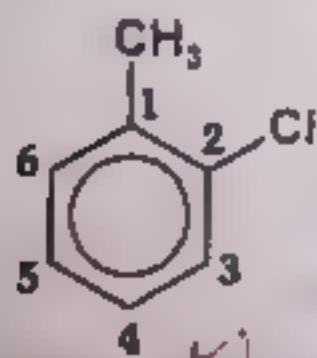


m-Dimethylbenzene
(1,3-Dimethylbenzene)
(m-Xylene)

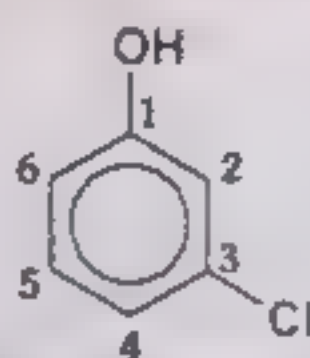


CH₃

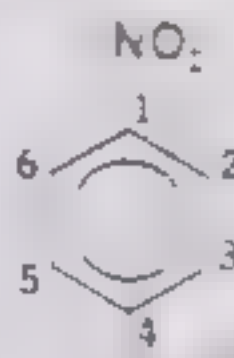
- (2) If the substituents are different and one of them is an alkyl group, the carbon which is linked to the alkyl group and the second substituent is numbered 1.
- (3) When a common name is used, the substituent which is responsible for name e.g. OH in phenol, is considered to be on carbon-1. Thus numbering is started from the group and such a compound is named as derivative of that parent.



o-Chlorotoluene or
2-Chlorotoluene (IUPAC)



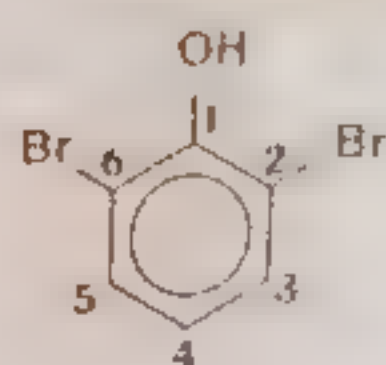
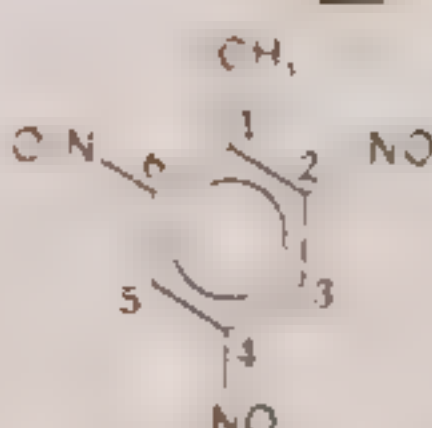
m-Chlorophenol or
3-Chlorophenol (IUPAC)



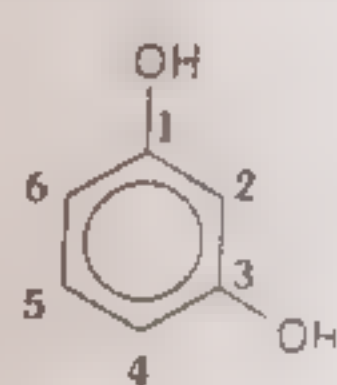
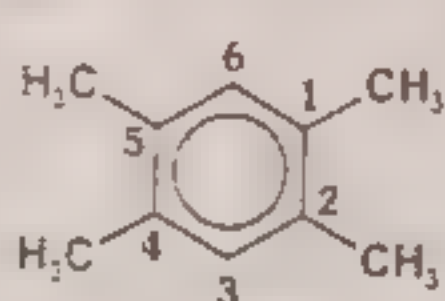
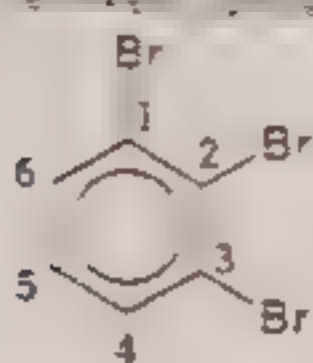
Br

- (4) When two substituents are different they are usually given alphabetical order.
- (5) Poly-substituted benzenes are named by number the lowest possible numbers. The last named substituent is not indicated in the name.

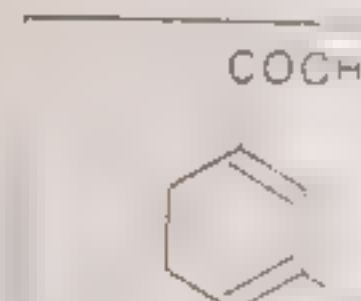
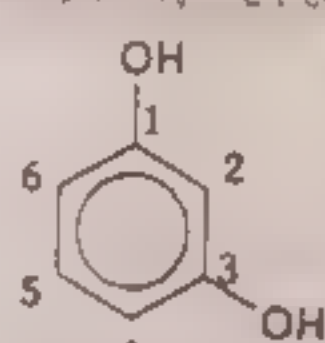
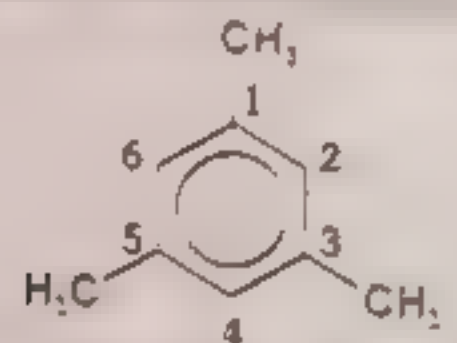
IE



6. The numbering of benzene ring is done in such a way that the substituent is given the lowest possible number.



7. Some common names of benzene derivatives are given below. Give their common name.



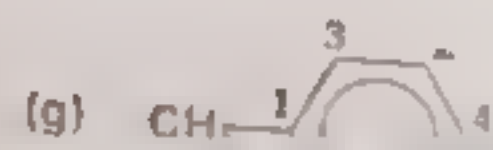
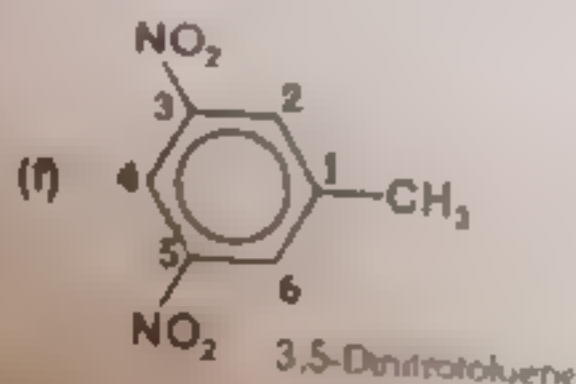
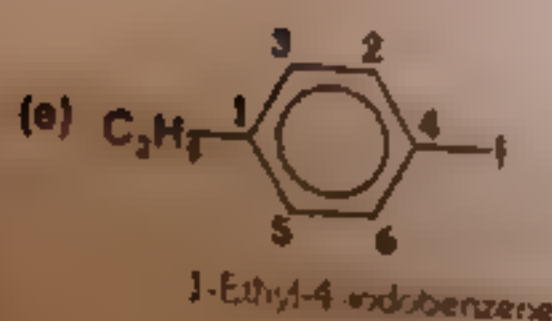
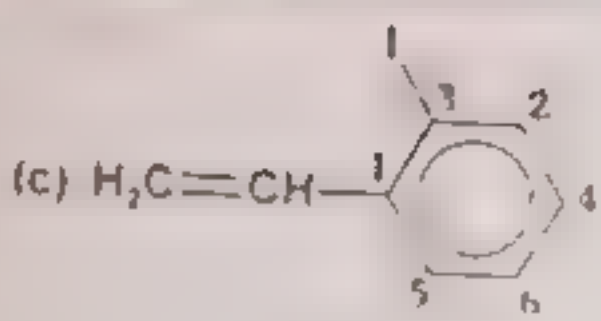
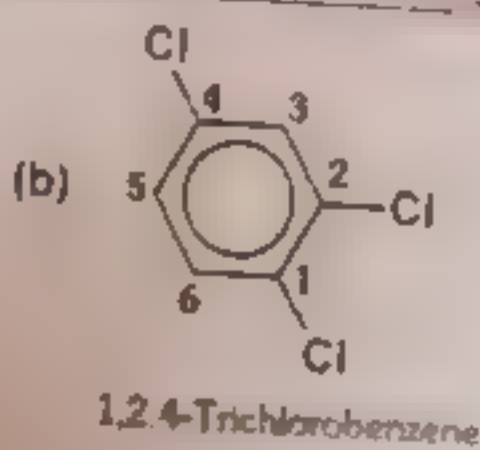
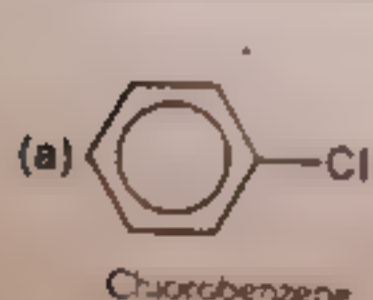
Remember!

If two different functional groups are present in benzene ring then it is better to use the following order: $-CN$, $-CHO$, $-COCH_3$, $-OH$, $-NH_2$, $-OR$, $-R$. The group with the highest priority is given the number 1. If $COOH$ and OH are present, then $COOH$ is given the highest priority, and the other group is given the number 2.

Example

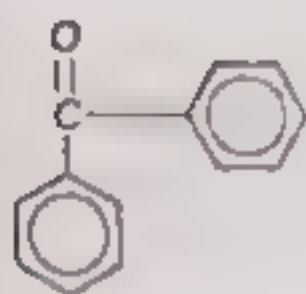
ACTIVITY:-

1. Give the suitable name to each of following:-

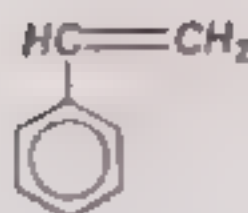


MORE PRACTICE

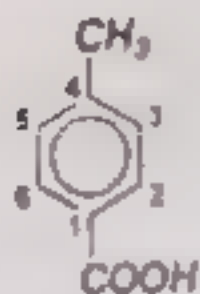
AROMATICS



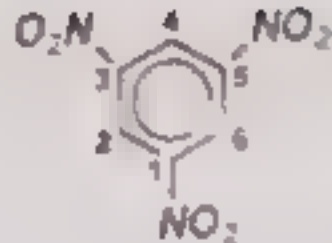
Benzophenone



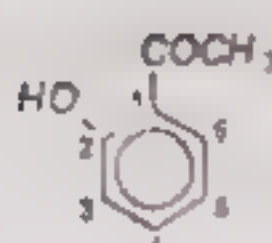
Vinylbenzene



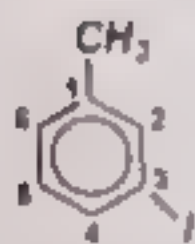
4-Methylbenzoic acid



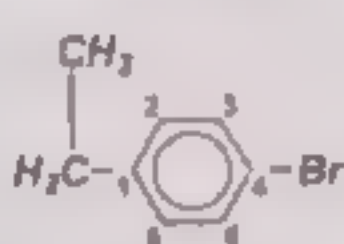
1,3,5-Trinitrobenzene



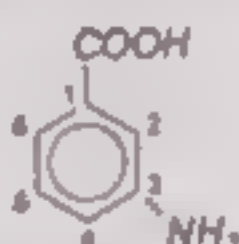
2-Hydroxyacetophenone



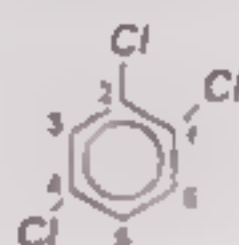
3-Iodotoluene



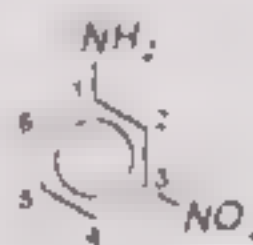
4-Bromoethylbenzene



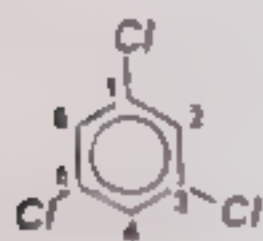
3-Aminobenzoic acid



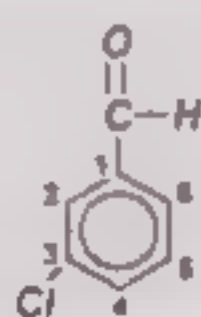
1,2,4-Trichlorobenzene



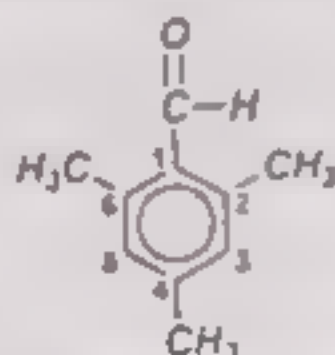
3-Nitroaniline



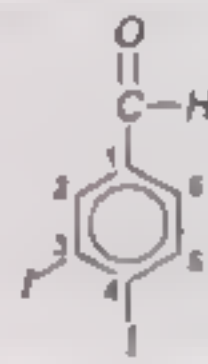
1,3,5-Trichlorobenzene



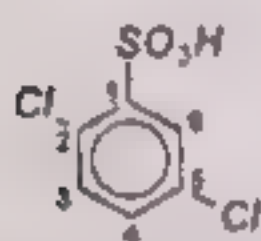
3-Chlorobenzaldehyde



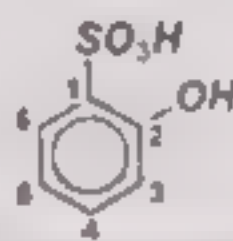
2,4,6-Trimethylbenzaldehyde



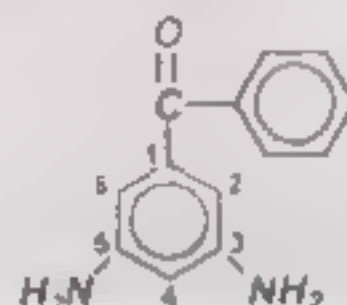
3,4-Diodobenzaldehyde



2,5-Dichlorobenzenesulfonic acid



2-Hydroxybenzenesulfonic acid



3,5-Diaminobenzophenone

CYCLIC



cyclopropane



cyclobutane



cyclopentane



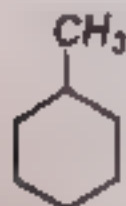
cyclohexane



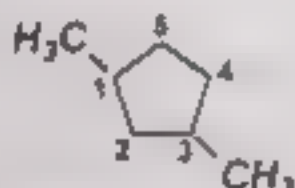
cycloheptane



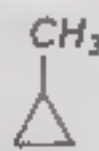
cyclooctane



Methylcyclohexane



1,3-Dimethylcyclopentane



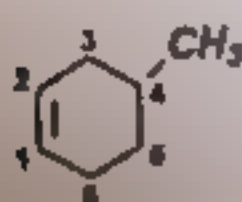
Methylcyclopropane



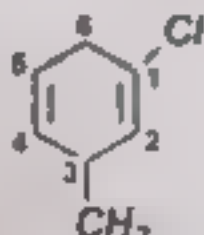
cyclohexene



Cyclo-1,3-pentadiene



4-Methylcyclohexene



1-Chloro-3-methylcyclohexa-1,4-diene



Cyclohexanamine

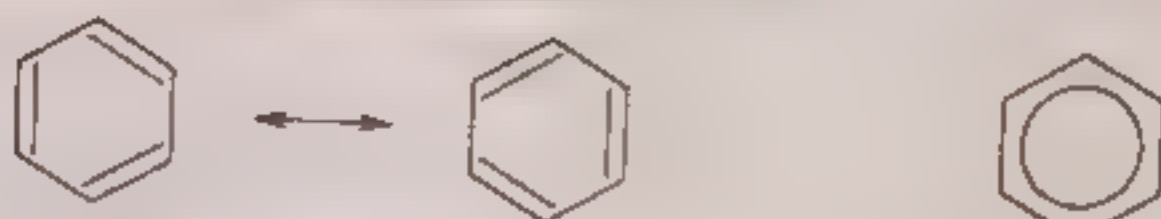


Nitrobenzene

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES:

In the absence of polar substituents, alkenes are typical hydrocarbons. They are non polar, have low melting points and low solubility in polar solvents.

STRUCTURE (MOLECULAR ORBITAL ASPECTS)



Kekulé structure

Robinson structure

- All twelve atoms in benzene (C_6H_6) are in one plane.
- Benzene has a planar, cyclic conjugated system.
- It contains alternating $C=C$ and $C-C$ bonds. Thus two different **Kekulé structures** are obtained. These two equally valid resonance contribute to the structure.
- Alternatively, these two forms can be imagined in the resonance hybrid and the conjugated system represented by a circle as in the Robinson structure.
- All the CC bonds are 1.4 \AA [between typical $C=C$ (1.33 \AA) and $C-C$ (1.54 \AA) distances].

Which representation is best?

- In benzene all the CC bonds are known to be of equal length, so there are no $C=C$ and $C-C$. This is represented by the resonance hybrid or the Robinson form.
- However, the key to organic chemistry is to understand mechanisms and draw curved arrows to show positions of the electrons. The Kekulé structures give a more precise description of the electron positions.
- Hence, it is a good idea to use a **Kekulé representation**.

Limitations of Kekulé's Structure

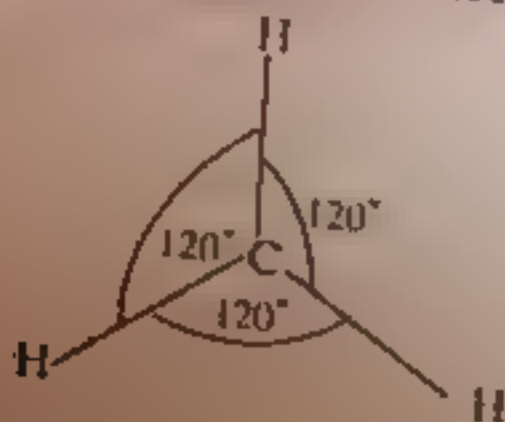
Kekulé's structure failed to explain as to why

- (1) Benzene is less reactive
- (2) It shows dual character, i.e., it shows addition as well as substitute reaction
- (3) It has less heat of formation, and
- (4) It has equal $C-C$ bonds

Exercise Q3 (4) (b). Explain the structure of benzene according to atomic orbital structure (or Molecular Orbital Structure).

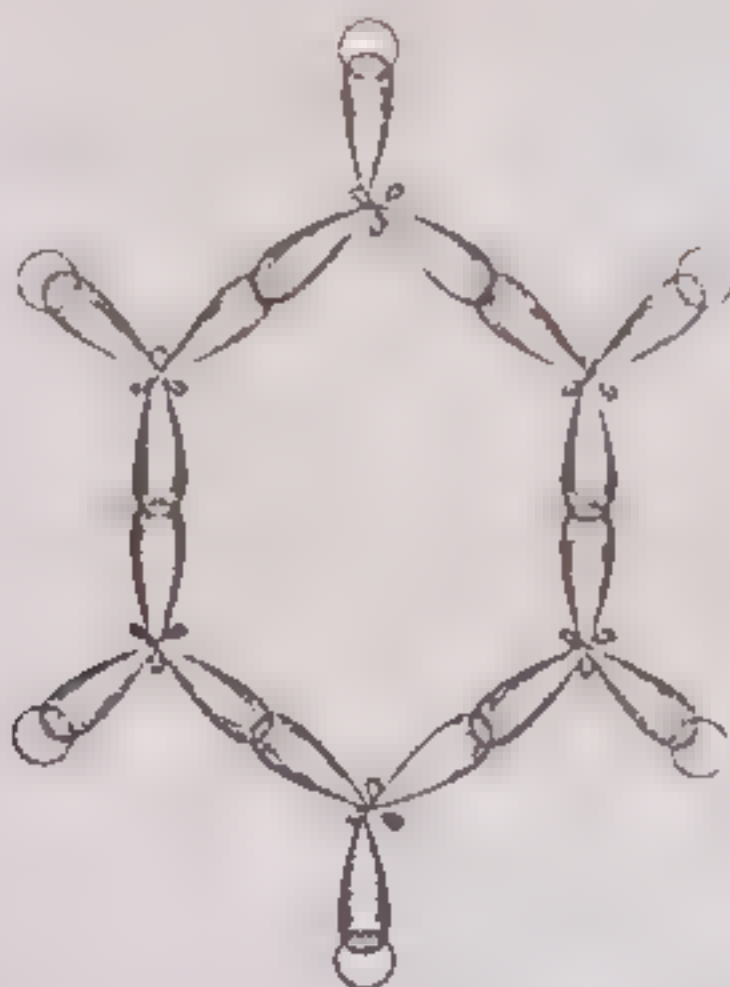
MOLECULAR ORBITAL TREATMENT OF BENZENE (or ATOMIC ORBITAL TREATMENT)

- Spectroscopic studies and X-rays analysis have shown that benzene is a regular flat plane hexagon.
- All six hydrogen atoms are co-planar with six carbon atoms.
- The bond angles are
 - (i) $C-C-C = 120^\circ$, and
 - (ii) $C-C-H = 120^\circ$
- Thus each C -atom is in a state of sp^2 hybridization because each C atom is attached to three other atoms.
- Each sp^2 hybridized carbon atom has three sp^2 orbitals and one unhybridized $2p_z$ orbital.



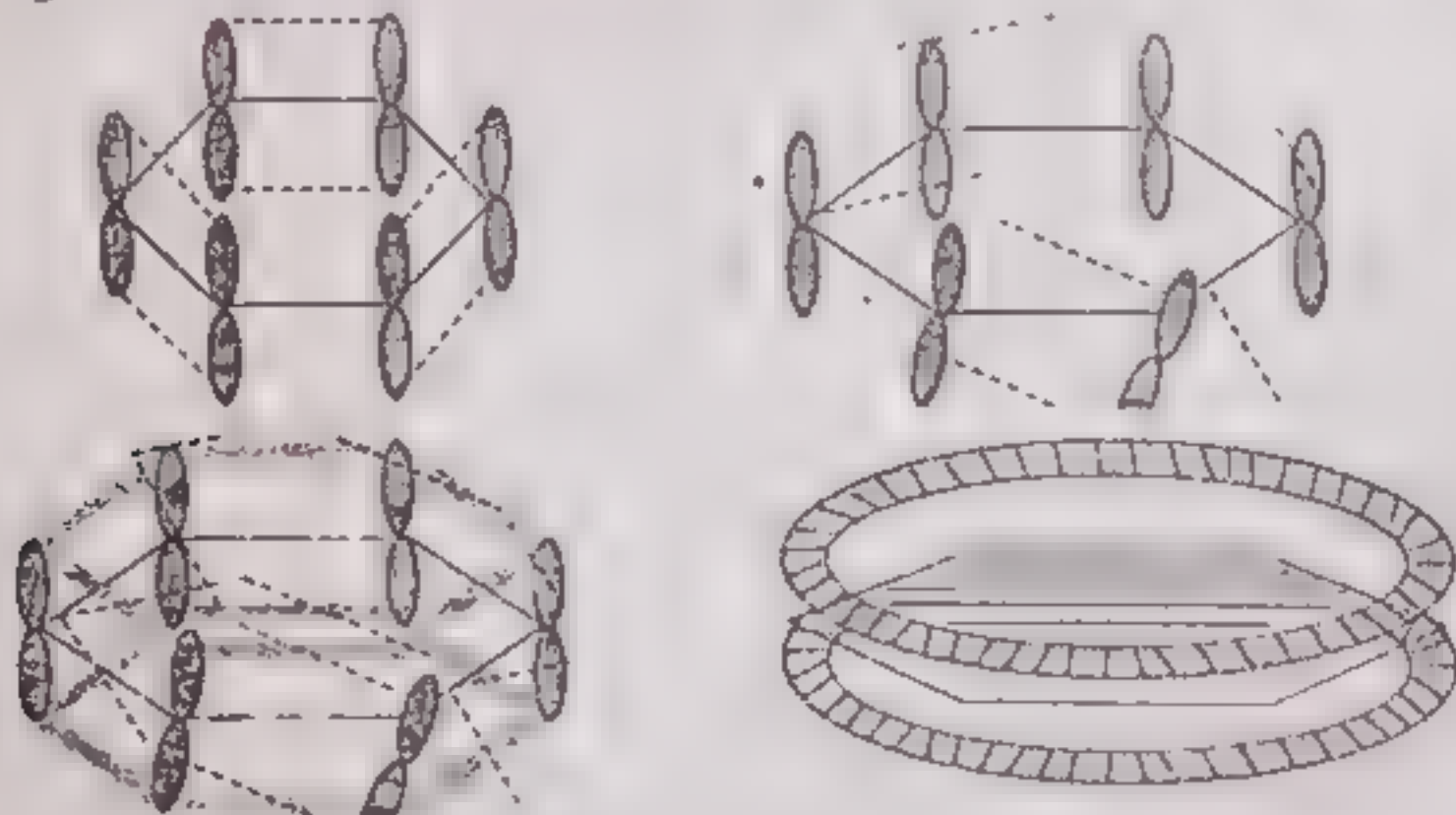
Sigma Framework of benzene.

The combination of six sp^2 -hybridized carbon atoms and overlap of sp^2 orbitals give rise to the following sigma frame work of benzene



Delocalized pi-bonding:

- Six atomic p-orbitals one on each C-atom, are present perpendicular to the sigma bonding
- Each p-orbital overlaps in parallel manners with neighbouring p-orbitals to give a continuous sheath of negative charges as



Conclusions:

- The parallel overlap all six p-orbitals form an extensive delocalized pi-bonding which is above and below the plane of carbon nuclei of benzene
- Delocalization of p-orbitals over the entire ring produces sandwich like structure which lowers the energy of molecule. Thus, the molecule becomes more stable and less reactive. *Why Benzene shows substitution reaction*
- According to this molecular orbital picture each carbon-carbon bond consists of one sigma-bond and half a pi-bond. Thus, the carbon-carbon bond lengths are equal. *Therefore benzene shows substitution as well as addition reactions*

QUICK QUIZ-6

Critique the following statement: Benzene is a mixture of molecules most of which have the structure



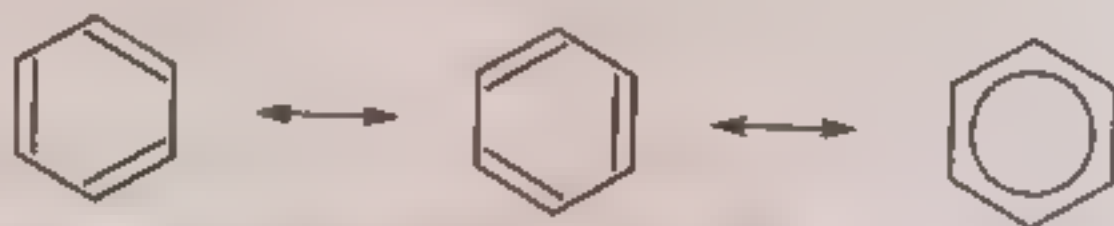
These two structures explain most of the experimental properties of benzene. So, it can be said that if benzene is a mixture of molecules than most of these have the above structures

However, these structures show that benzene contains double bonds, therefore, it should give reactions of unsaturated hydrocarbons i.e. addition reactions. However, benzene mostly gives substitution reactions, characteristic of saturated hydrocarbons. Hence, these two are not actual structures of benzene. These can be considered as hypothetical structures.

MODERN REPRESENTATION OF BENZENE

With the help of molecular orbital behaviour we conclude that benzene has

- A regular hexagonal structure with an inscribed circle.
- A hexagon has alternate double and single bonds.



RESONANCE, RESONANCE ENERGY AND STABILIZATION

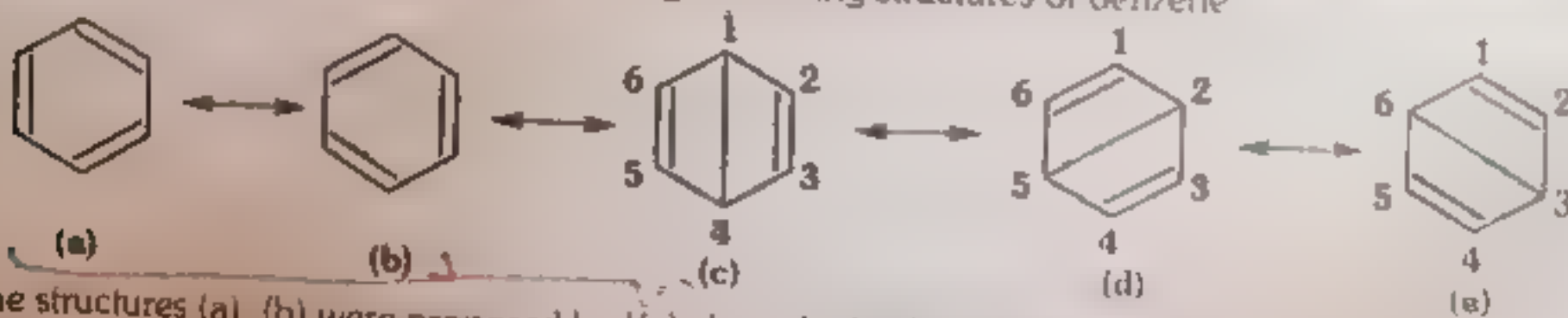
(I) RESONANCE

The possibility of different pairing schemes of valence electrons of atom is called resonance. Different structures thus arranged are called "Resonance Structures".

Explanation:

The resonance is represented by a double-headed arrow.

Example: The following different pairing schemes of the fourth valence (the p-electrons) are possible in benzene. This gives the following resonating structures of benzene.



- The structures (a) (b) were proposed by Kekule and (c), (d) (e) were proposed by Dewar.
- The stability of a molecule increases with increase in the number of its resonance structures. Thus benzene is chemically quite stable.
- The actual structure of benzene is a resonance hybrid of all five structures.
- The Kekulé's structures have the larger contribution and Dewar's structures have the smaller contribution. Therefore, benzene molecule can be represented by either of the two Kekulé's structures.



- The three alternating single and double bonds in the above structure are called conjugate bonds or resonating bonds.
- Since the structure of benzene is a resonance hybrid, therefore all the C-C bond lengths are equal. However, these bonds are different from those in alkanes, alkenes and alkynes. It is intermediate between those in alkanes and alkenes.
- The alternating single and double bonds in benzene can better be represented as follows



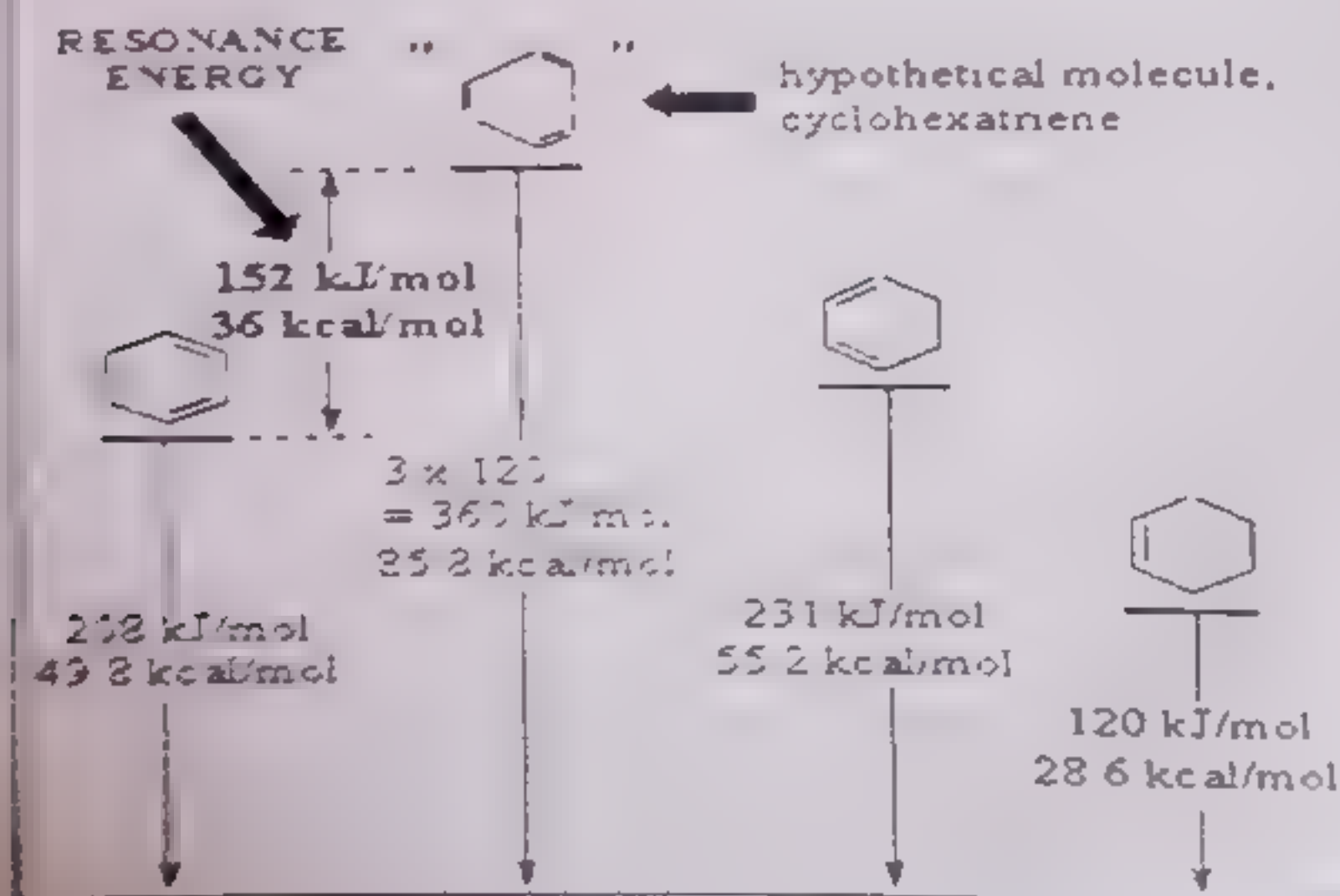
10. RESONANCE ENERGY

The resonance energy of a compound is a measure of the extra stability of the conjugated system compared to the corresponding number of isolated double bonds. It can be calculated from experimental measurements.

Explanation:

- The diagram shows the experimental heats of hydrogenation, ΔH_h , for three molecules, benzene, 1,3-cyclohexadiene and cyclohexene.
- Under appropriate conditions they can all be reduced to the same product, cyclohexane.
- The ΔH_h of cyclohexene is 120 kJ/mol .
- In a hypothetical cyclohexatriene molecule, the double bonds are assumed to be isolated from each other. Thus its ΔH_h should be three times of ΔH_h for cyclohexene, $120 \times 3 = 360 \text{ kJ/mol}$. Thus, during hydrogenation of 'hypothetical' cyclohexatriene, energy should be released from three isolated C=C bonds.
- However, the experimental ΔH_h for benzene is 208 kJ/mol .
- So, the difference between experimental value for benzene and that of hypothetical cyclohexatriene is 152 kJ/mol . $360 - 208 = 152 \text{ kJ/mol}$.
- Thus, benzene is 152 kJ/mol more stable than the hypothetical system. This is the resonance energy for benzene.

Energy



REACTIVITY AND REACTIONS

The image shows the electrostatic potential for benzene

- The more dark area is the region of higher electron density and the less dark area is the region of lower electron density.
- Hence, the aromatic π -system is nucleophilic in character
- For arenes, there are two types of reactions
 - ✓ Reactions of electrophiles directly on the aromatic ring, and
 - ✓ Reactions of the substituents (since the neighboring aromatic group influences its reactivity)
- For reactions directly on the aromatic ring
 - ✓ The cyclic array of π -bonds is a region of high electron density so arenes are typically nucleophilic (unlike alkenes and alkynes)
 - ✓ Alkenes and alkynes undergo addition reactions. However, arenes typically undergo substitution reactions in which a group (usually $-H$) is replaced and the aromatic system is retained
 - ✓ The stability of the aromatic system favours substitution over addition. It is because addition would destroy the aromatic system

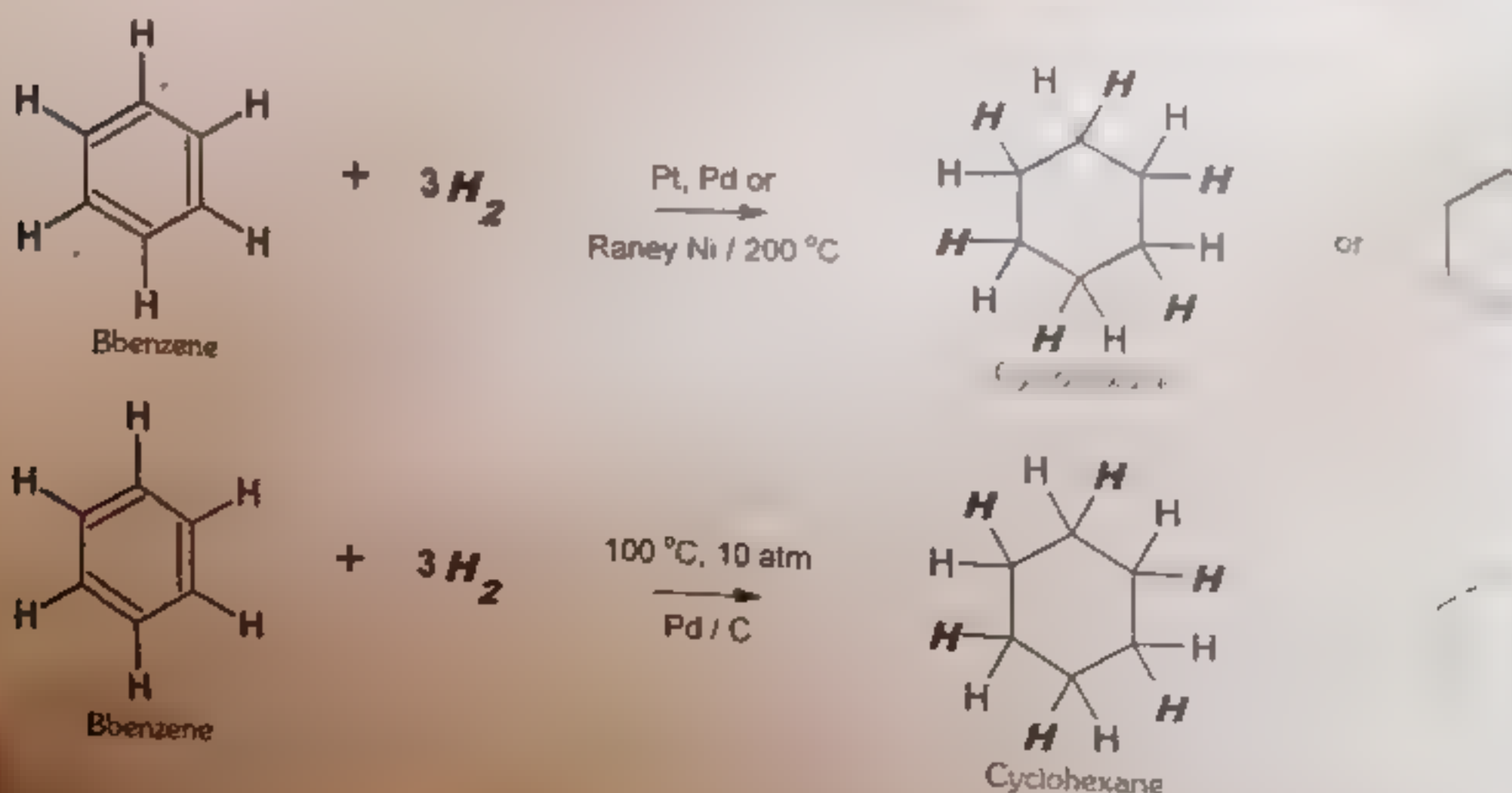


(A) ADDITION REACTIONS

- Benzene is highly unsaturated compound. It has three double bonds in it. But it does not undergo addition reaction readily. The reason is that it shows resonance. The delocalization of π electrons makes it more stable.
- So for addition reaction benzene requires more vigorous condition than that of alkenes and alkynes.

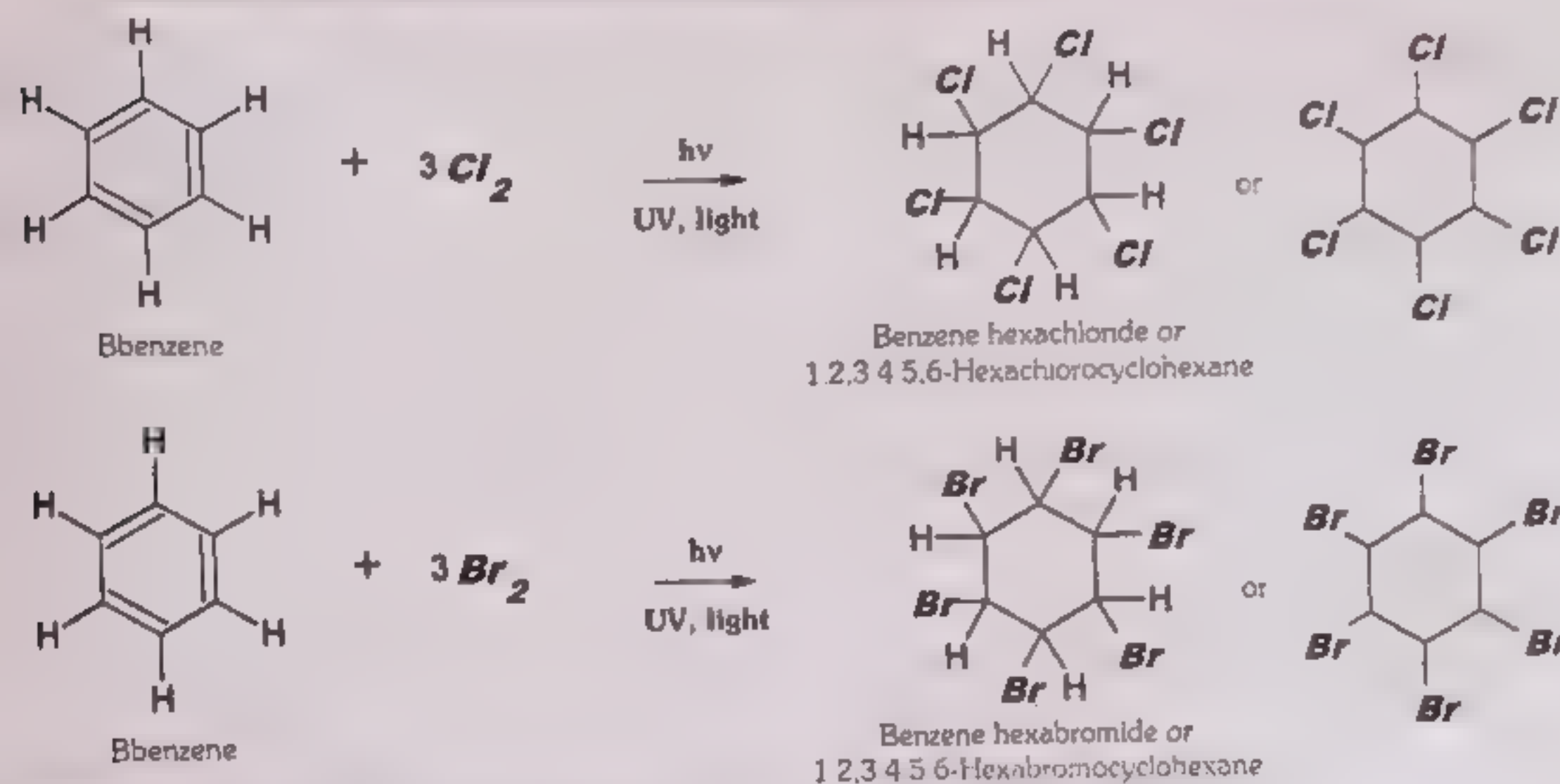
(1) CATALYTIC HYDROGENATION

- Benzene can be hydrogenated in the presence of a catalyst as Pt, Pd or Raney Ni, at high temperature and pressures
- If we use the metals like Ru, Rh, supported at carbon then hydrogenation can be carried out at lower temperature and pressures



2) ADDITION OF HALOGENS

- Benzene can add three molecules of chlorine or bromine under the influence of light.
- The benzene ring becomes saturated and we get benzene hexachloride and benzene hexabromide.
- This reaction shows that benzene has three double bonds in the ring.



Reaction of F₂ and I₂:

The reaction of F₂ with benzene is very vigorous, while with I₂ it is very slow.

Conclusion:

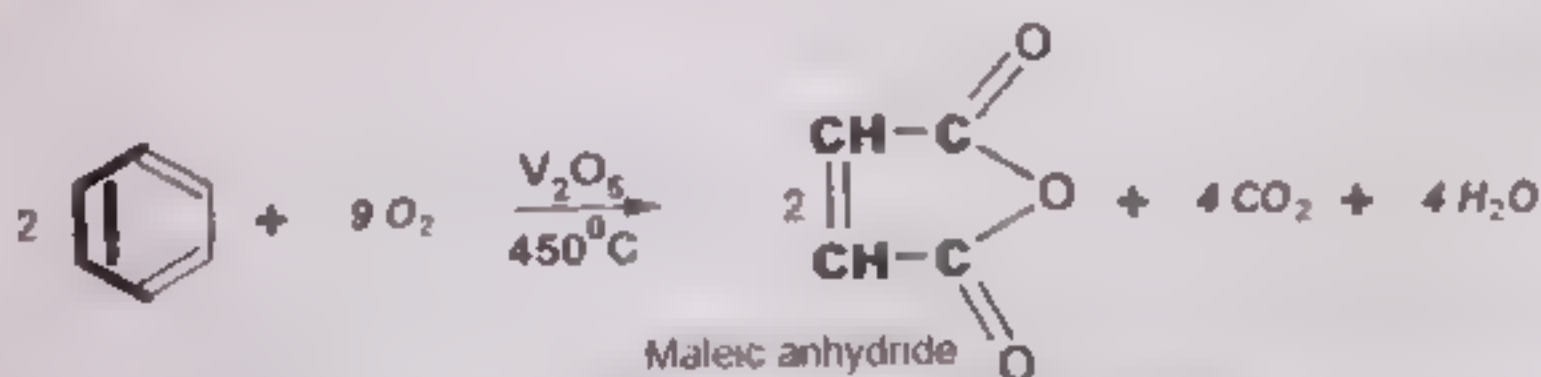
The addition reaction of hydrogen and chlorine show that benzene is unsaturated hydrocarbon and has three double bonds in it.

(B) – OXIDATION REACTIONS

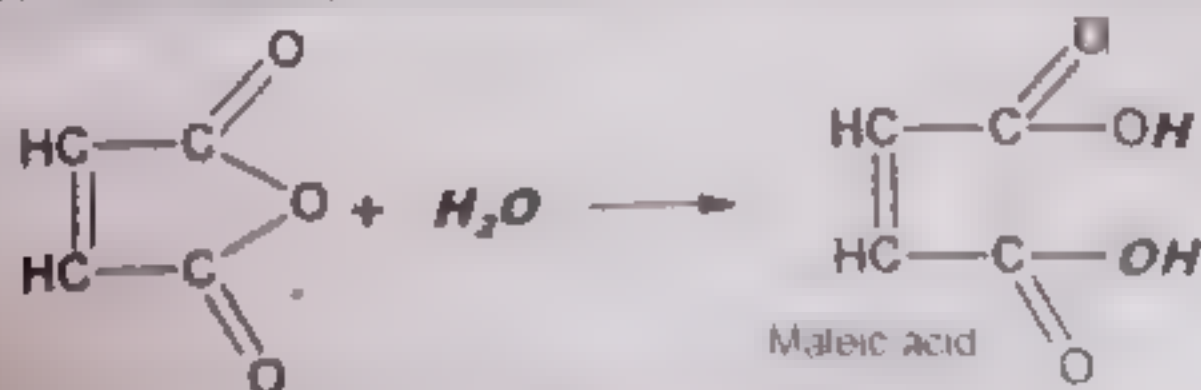
- Benzene is stable towards general oxidizing agents. However, it can be oxidized under certain conditions.

(1) CATALYTIC OXIDATION

When benzene is oxidized with air in the presence of V₂O₅ at 450°C, then we get maleic anhydride.



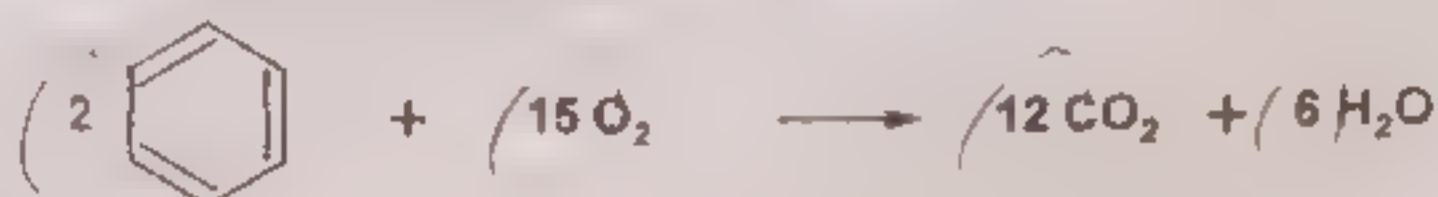
- This is commercial method for the preparation of maleic anhydride which on hydrolysis gives maleic acid.



- Benzene is not oxidized by KMnO₄ or K₂Cr₂O₇.

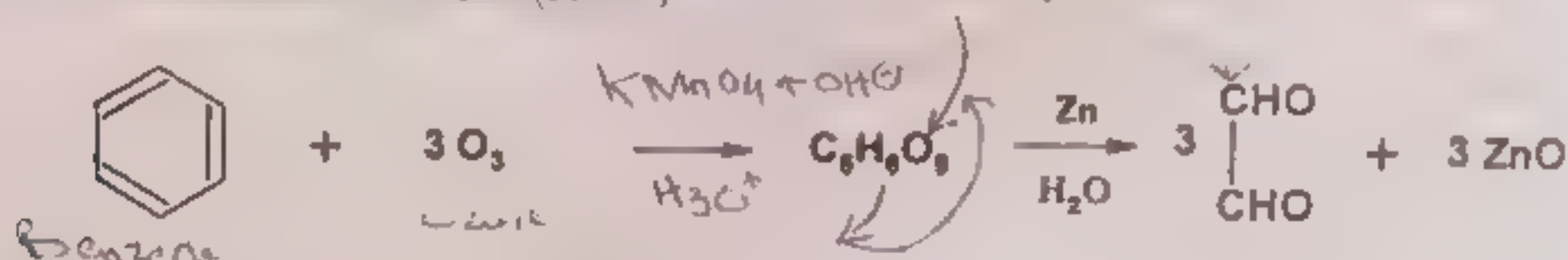
(2) COMBUSTION

When benzene is burnt in the presence of air or oxygen, (CO_2 and H_2O) are produced, just like other hydrocarbons



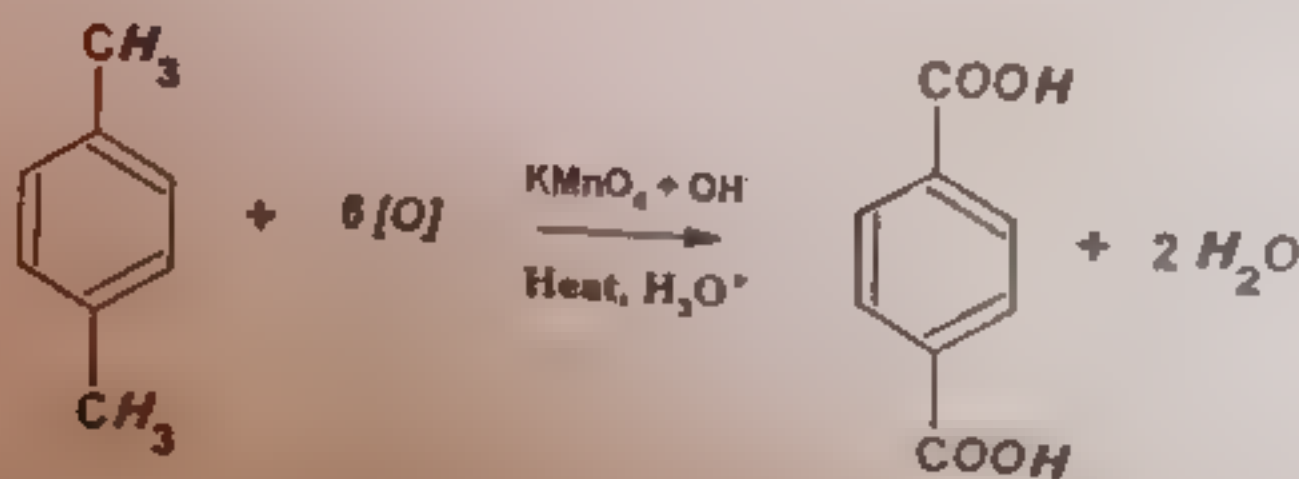
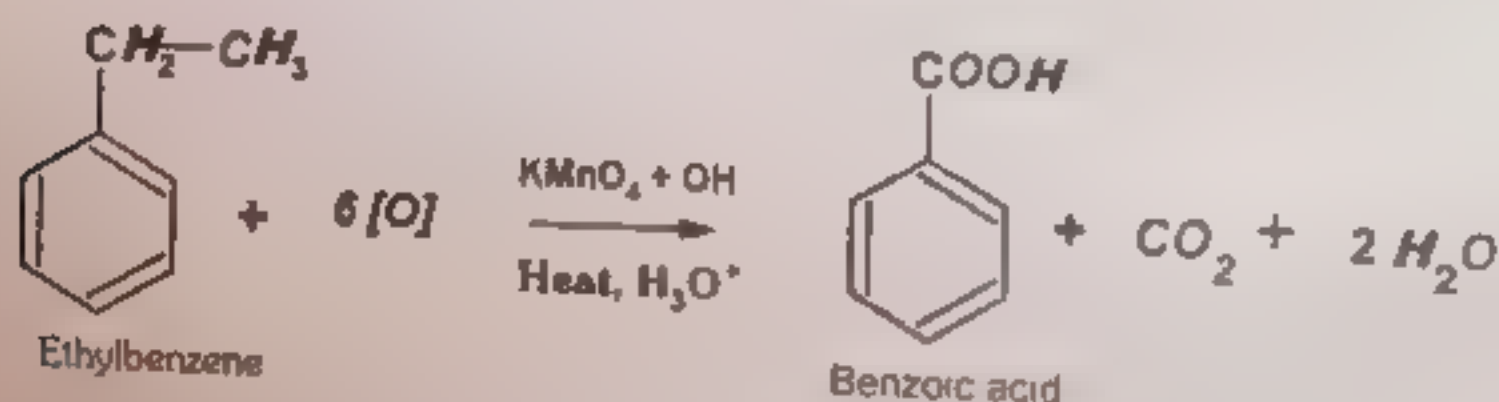
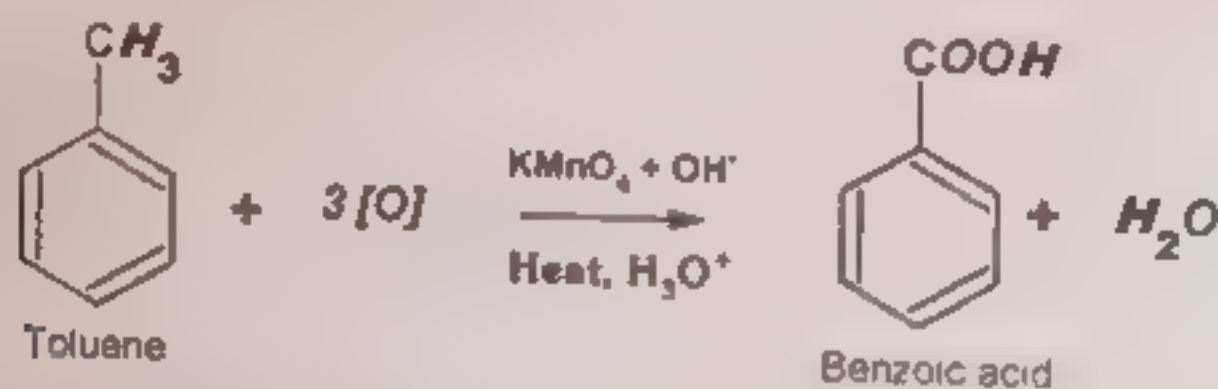
(3) OZONOLYSIS

Benzene reacts with ozone and gives glyoxal, First of all triozonide is produced as an intermediate



(4) OXIDATION OF SIDE CHAIN

Alkyl groups present in the benzene ring are oxidized into carboxylic groups. The oxidizing agents are
 (i) $\text{KMnO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ (ii) $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7 + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ (iii) Dil. HNO_3



Conclusion:

When both methyl groups are oxidized and benzene ring remains unaffected. It is stable towards oxidizing agents.

C - ELECTROPHILIC AROMATIC SUBSTITUTION REACTIONS

General Introduction

The π -electrons of benzene are highly reactive due to resonance. They are not free to move and electrophilic attack like the electrons of alkenes. They, consequently, need a powerful electrophile. Powerful electrophiles are required for a successful attack to penetrate and break the delocalised π -electron cloud in benzene.

Explanation and Example

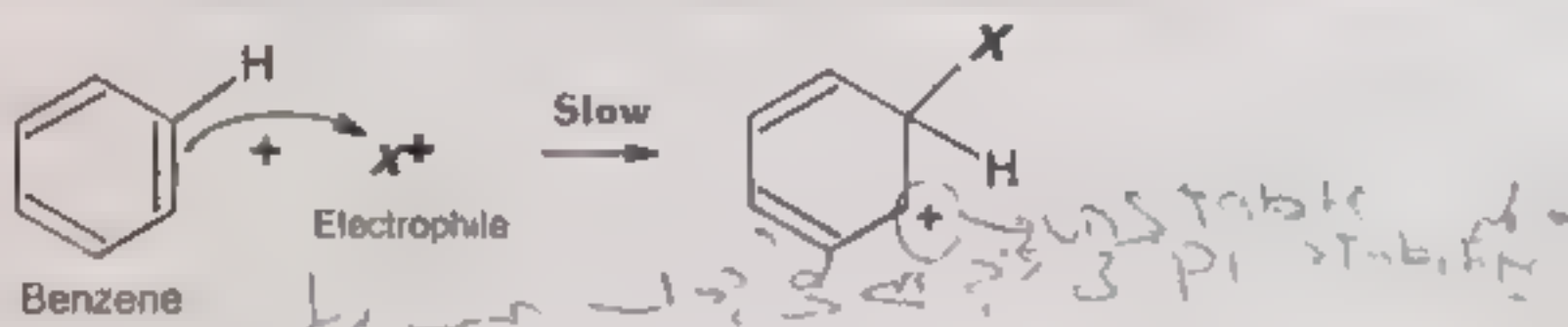
Substitution of halogen in benzene requires iron or corresponding element as a catalyst. The catalyst molecule produces a powerful electrophile.

(I) Formation of a strong electrophile (X^+)



(II) Attack of electrophile at π -bond:

- The halogenation ion, thus produced, attacks as a powerful electrophile on the electrons of π -bond.

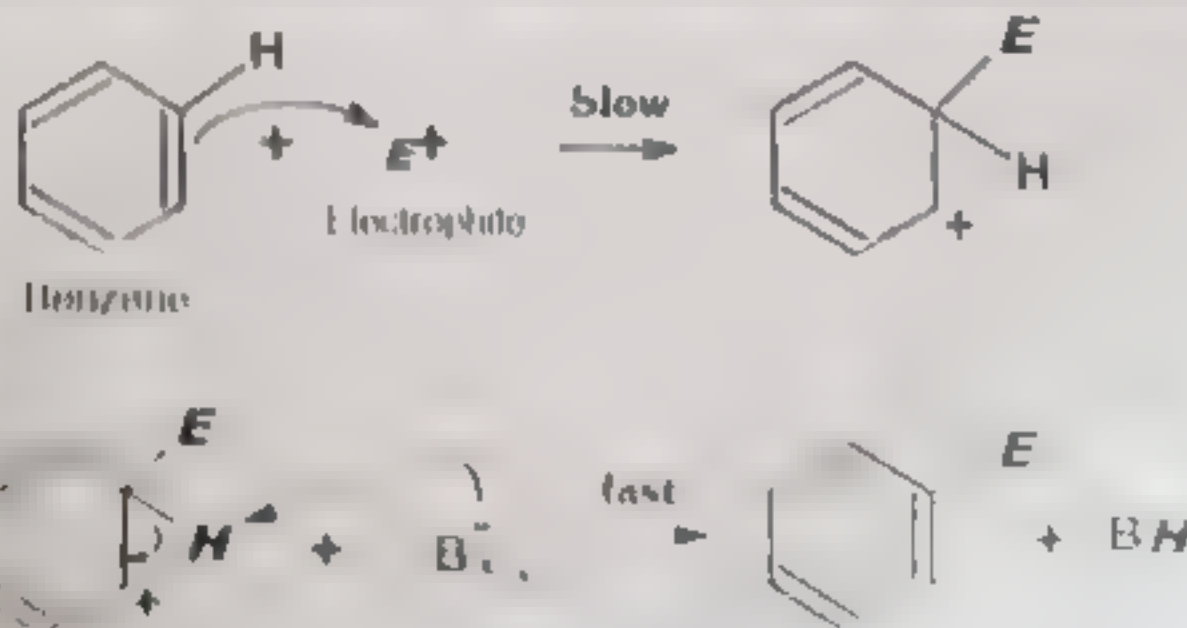


- If had benzene unstable. The stability is retained by the removal of H-atom to give substitution product.






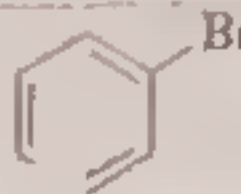



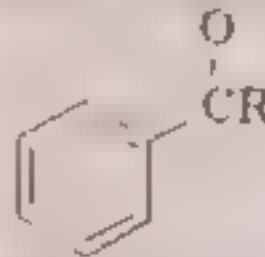
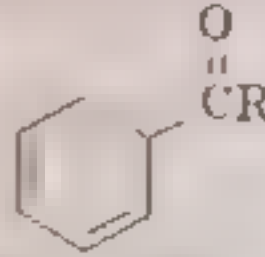
General Pattern of Substitution

The general pattern of the chemical reactivity of benzene towards electrophiles can be shown as follows:



Substitution is preferred over addition in order to preserve aromaticity.

Summary

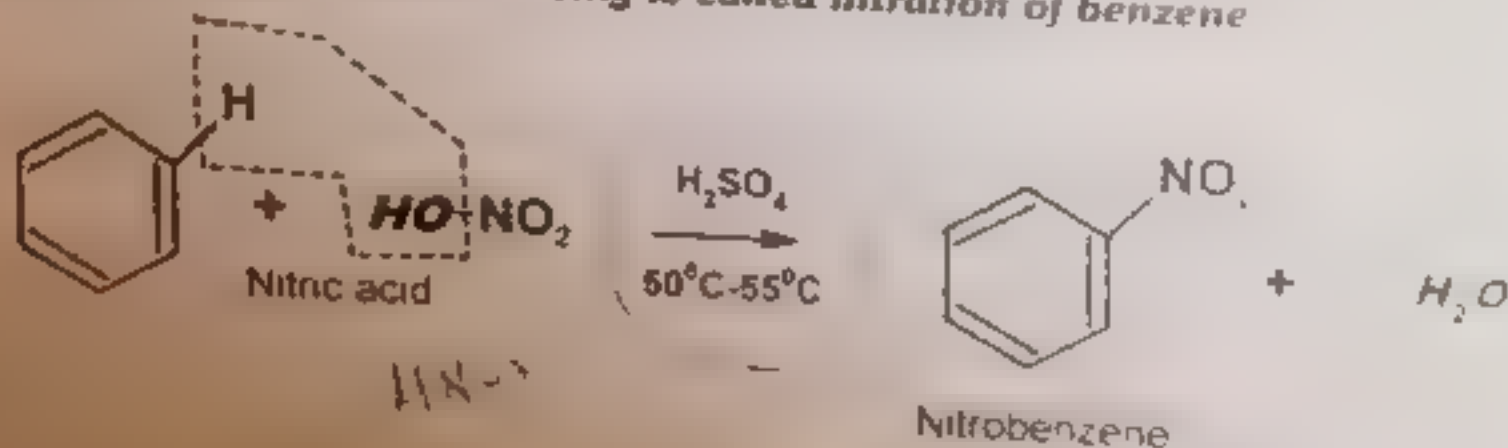
Reaction	Reagents	Electrophile	Product	Comments
Nitration	$\text{HNO}_3 / \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$	NO_2^+		E^+ formed by loss of water from
Sulfonation	H_2SO_4 or $\text{SO}_3 / \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$	SO_3		Reversible
Halogenation	Cl_2 / Fe or FeCl_3	Cl^+		E^+ formed by Lewis acid reagent
	Br_2 / Fe or FeBr_3	Br^+		E^+ formed by Lewis acid reagent
Alkylation	$\text{RCl} / \text{AlCl}_3$	R^+		E^+ formed by Lewis acid reagent
	ROH / H^+ (See Page 298 for carbocation generation)	R^+		E^+ formed by loss of water from
	$\text{C}\equiv\text{C} / \text{H}^+$ (See Page 148 for carbocation generation)	R^+		
Acylation	$\text{RCOCl} / \text{AlCl}_3$	RCO^+		
	$\text{RCO}_2\text{COR} / \text{AlCl}_3$	RCO^+		

Exercise Q3 (vi) Explain the following electrophilic substitution reactions of benzene with nitric acid.

(b) Nitration

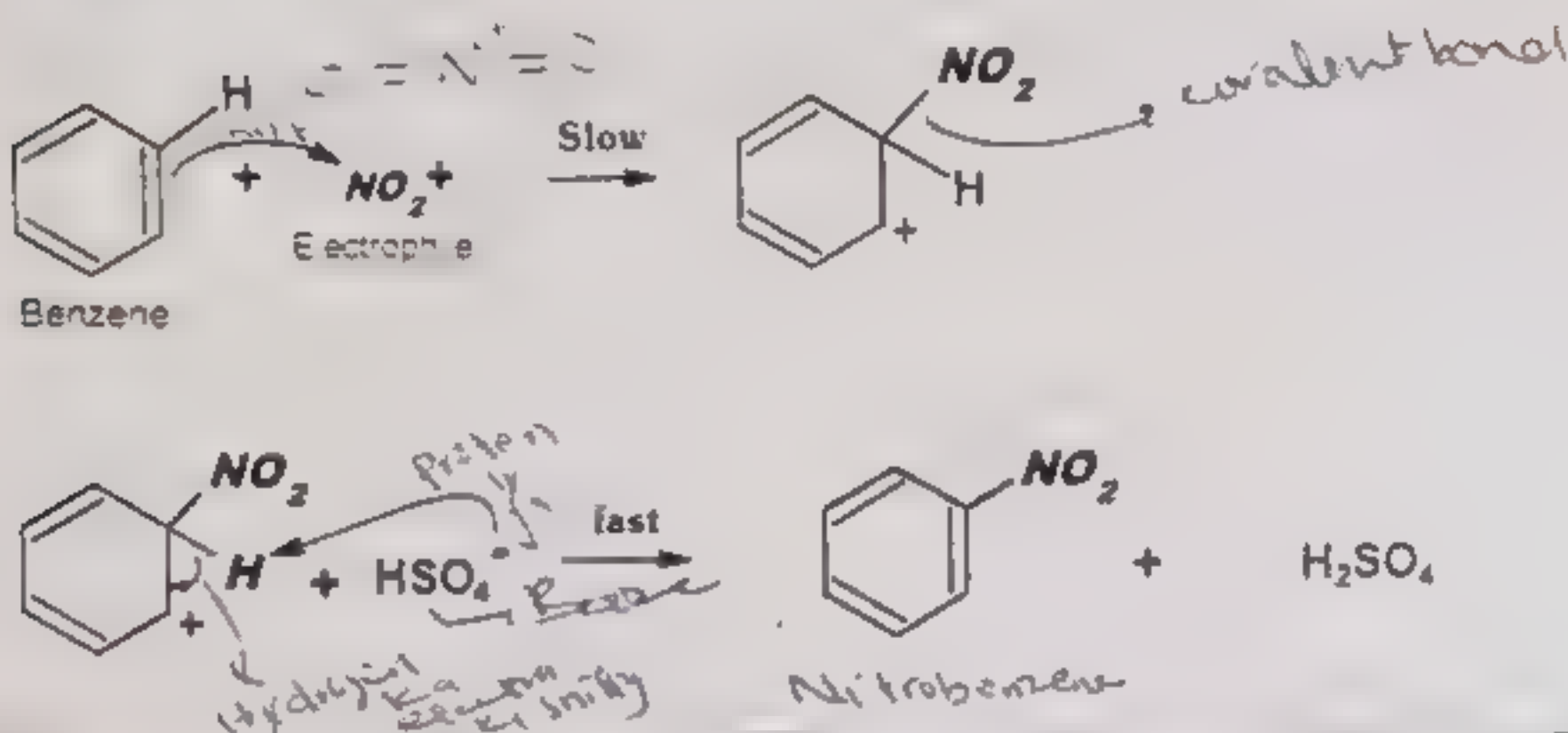
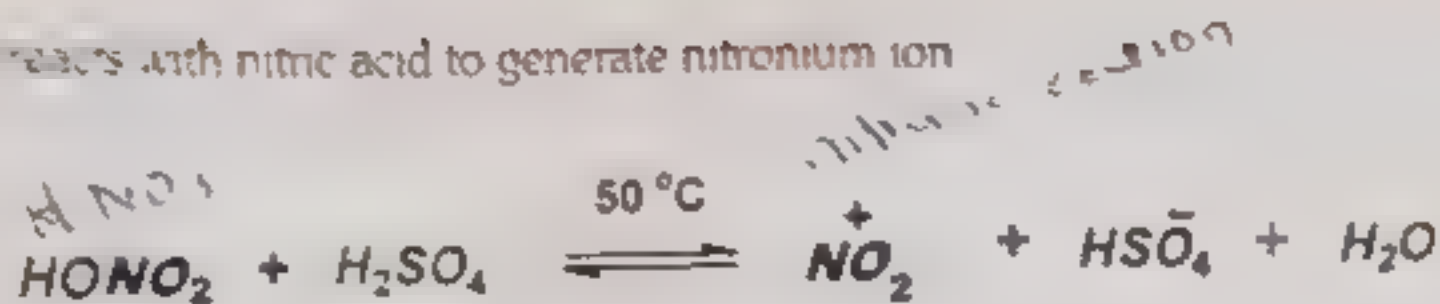
(1) NITRATION

The introduction of nitro group in benzene ring is called nitration of benzene



Mechanism

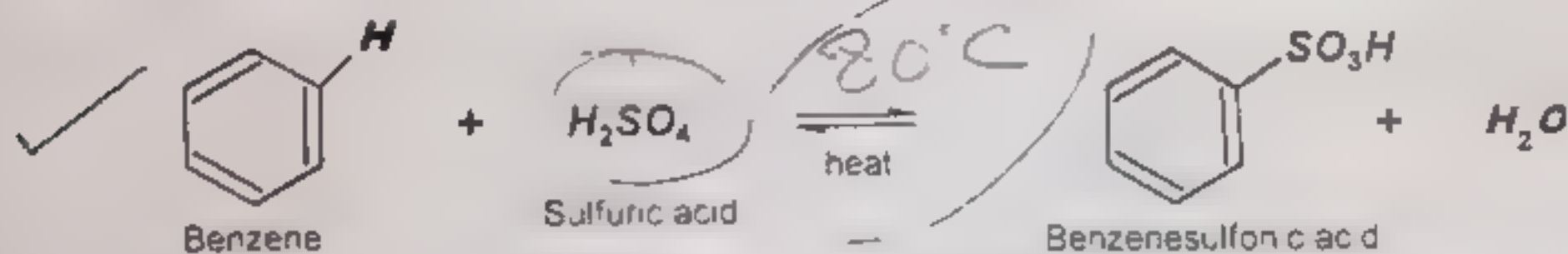
Sulphuric acid reacts with nitric acid to generate nitronium ion



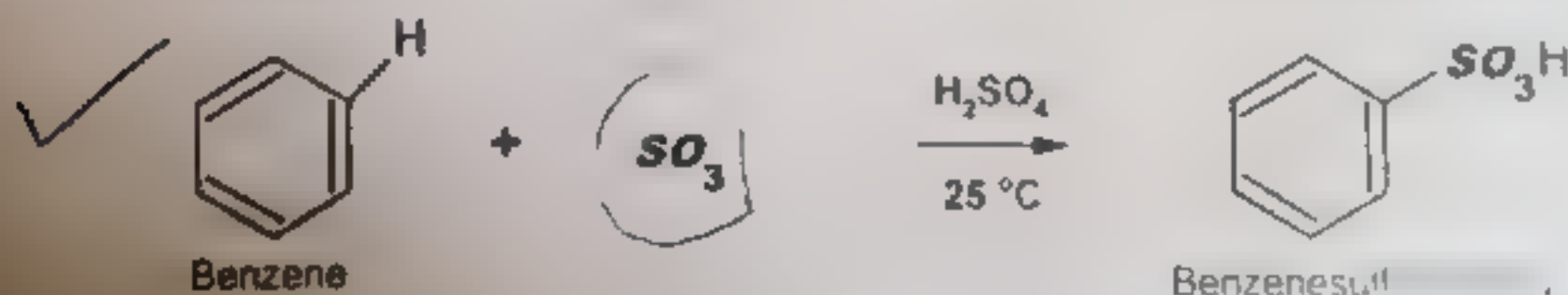
Exercise Q3 (vi) Explain the following electrophilic substitution reactions of benzene with mechanism.
(c) Sulphonation.

(2) SULFONATION

The introduction of sulphonic acid group in benzene ring is called Sulphonation

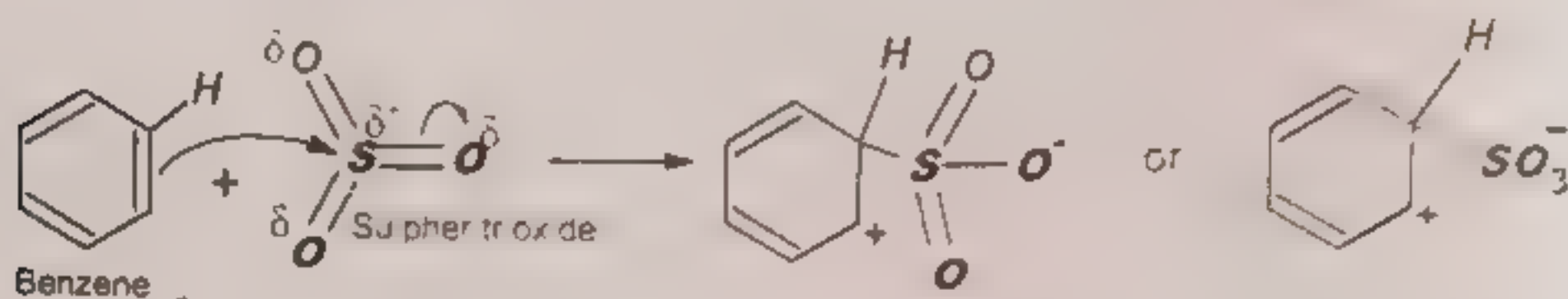
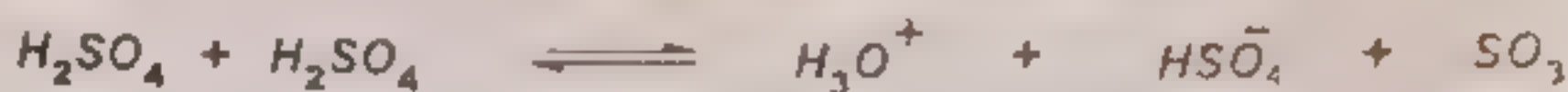


- When benzene is heated with fuming H_2SO_4 or concentrated H_2SO_4 , it yields benzenesulphonic acid
- Fuming H_2SO_4 has free sulphur trioxide which is electron deficient (electrophile) and causes substitution



Mechanism:

When sulphuric acid alone is used, the actual electrophile is SO_3 .

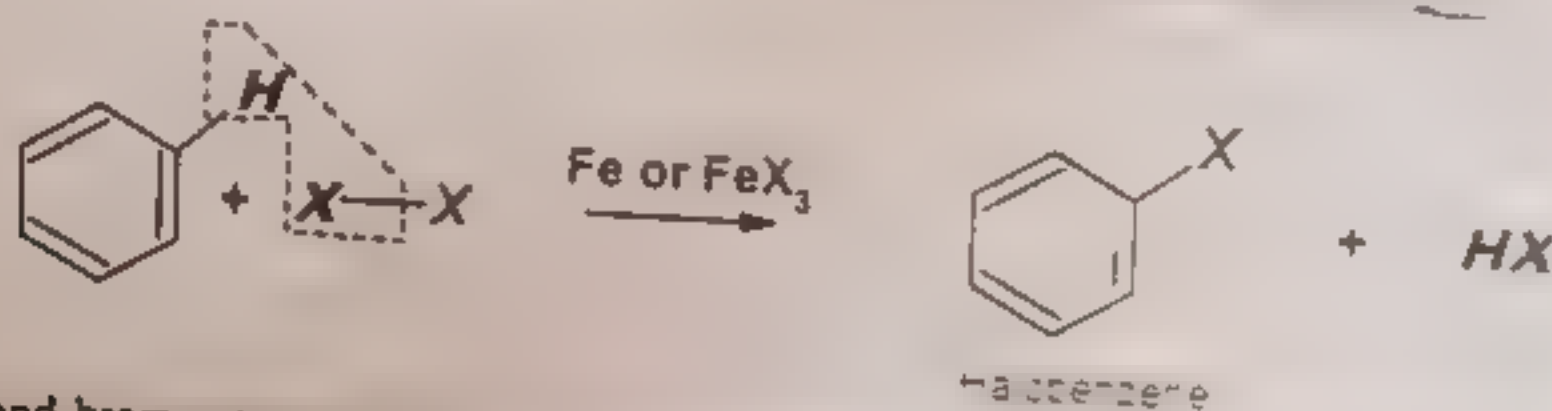


Exercise Q3 (6) Explain the following electrophilic substitution reactions of benzene with mechanism
(a) Halogenation

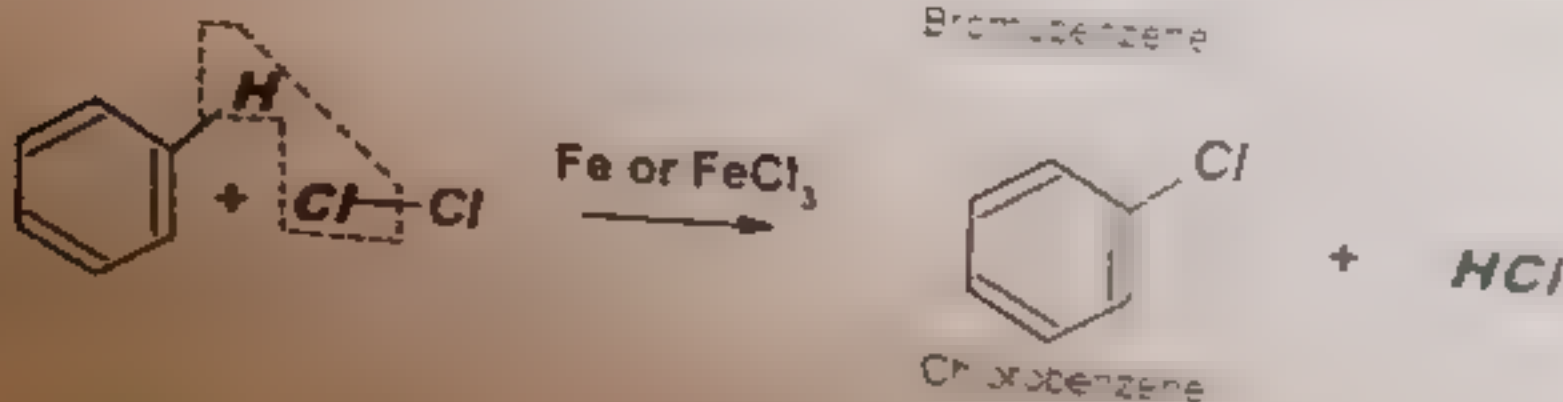
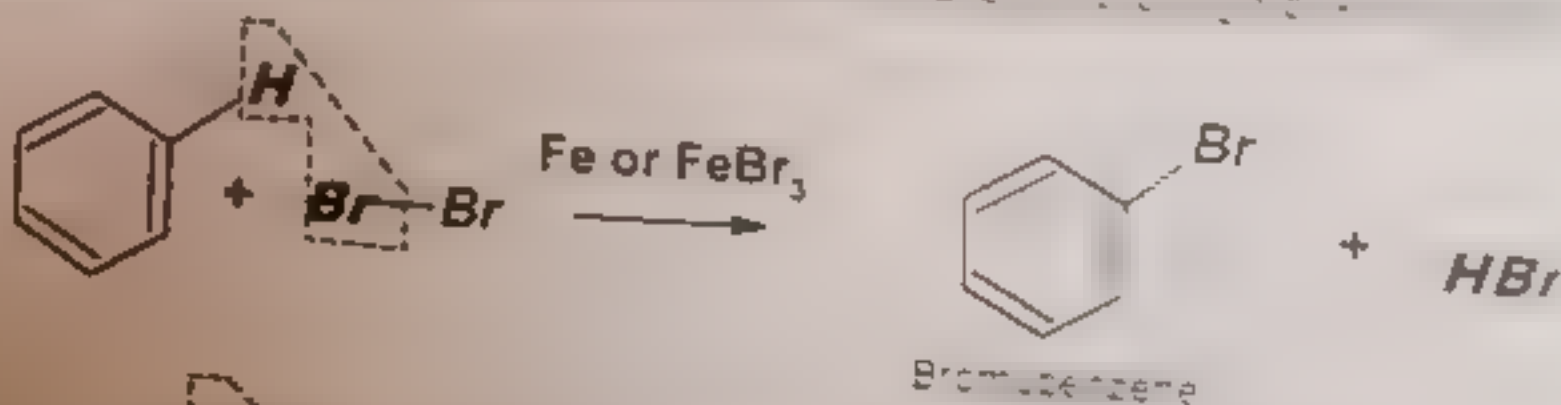
HALOGENATION

The introduction of halogen in benzene ring is called halogenation.

Halogenation of benzene occurs with halogens (X) in the presence of a catalyst FeX_3 or Fe .



Chlorination and bromination are normal reaction but fluorination is not possible due to poor yield.

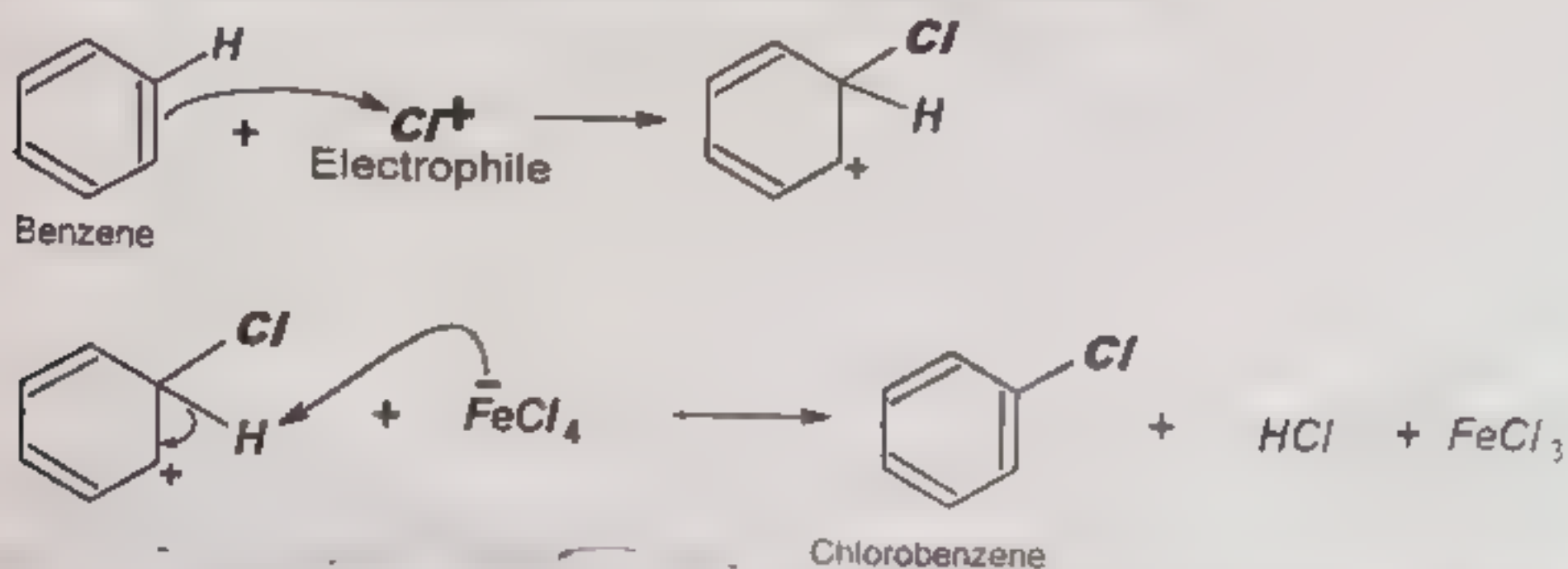


Mechanism:

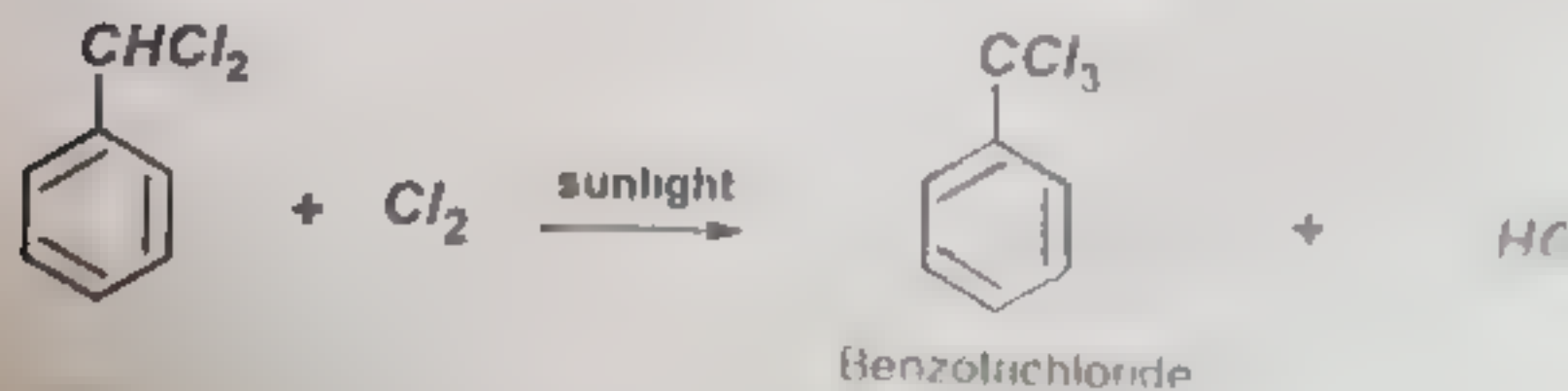
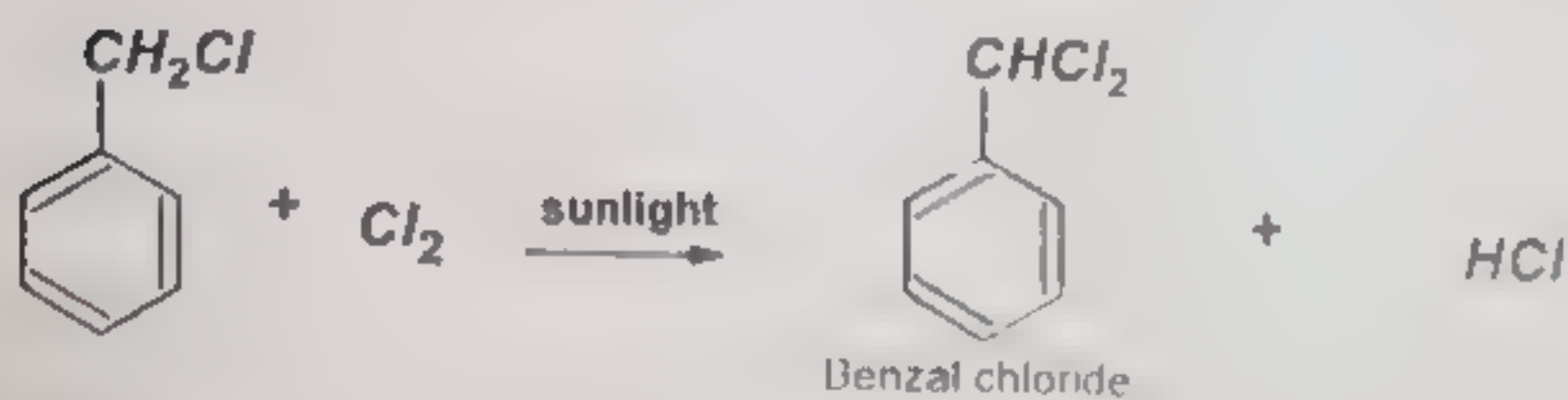
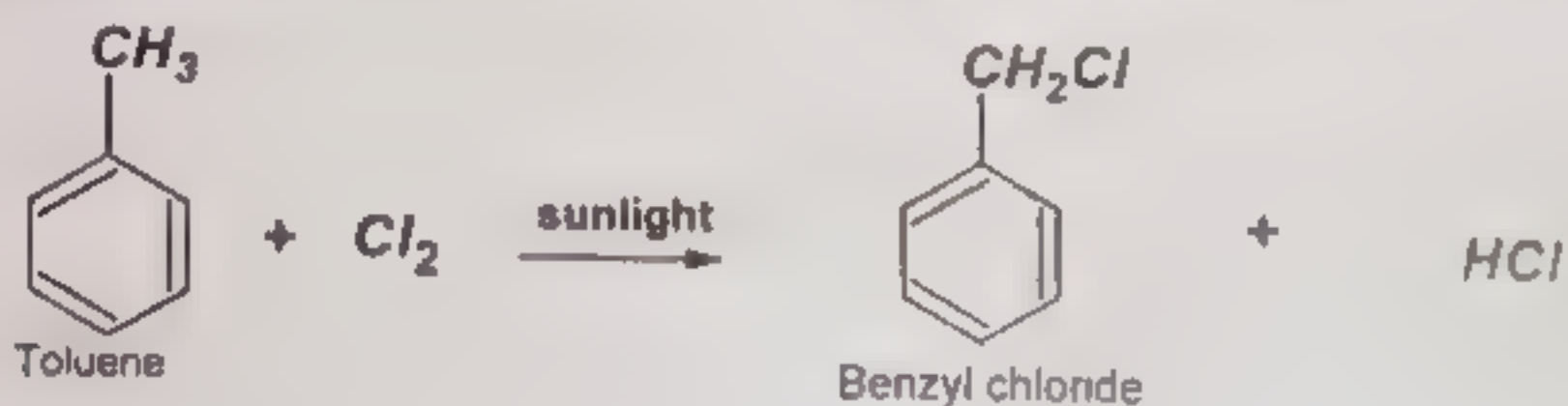
The actual halogenation agent is X^+ that is formed by the following mechanism



The Cl^+ being a strong electrophile is ready for successful attack on benzene

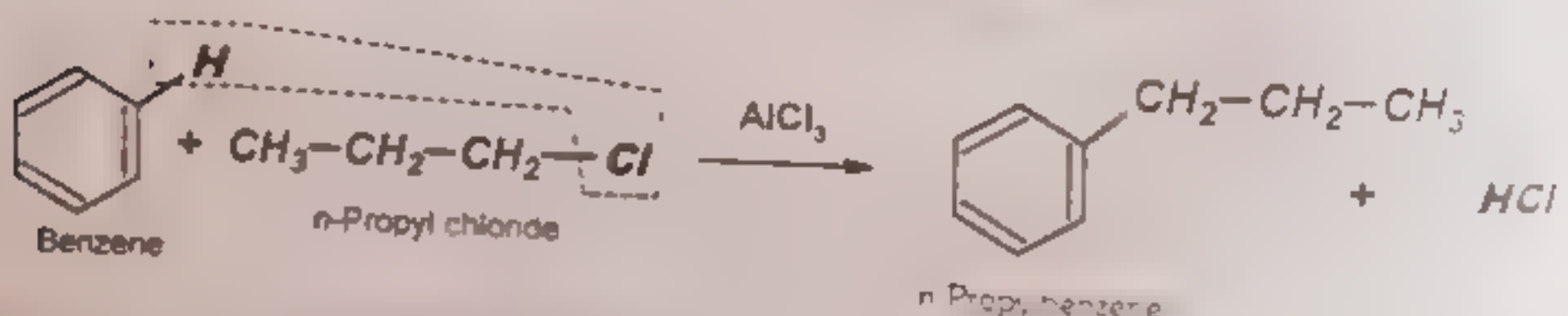
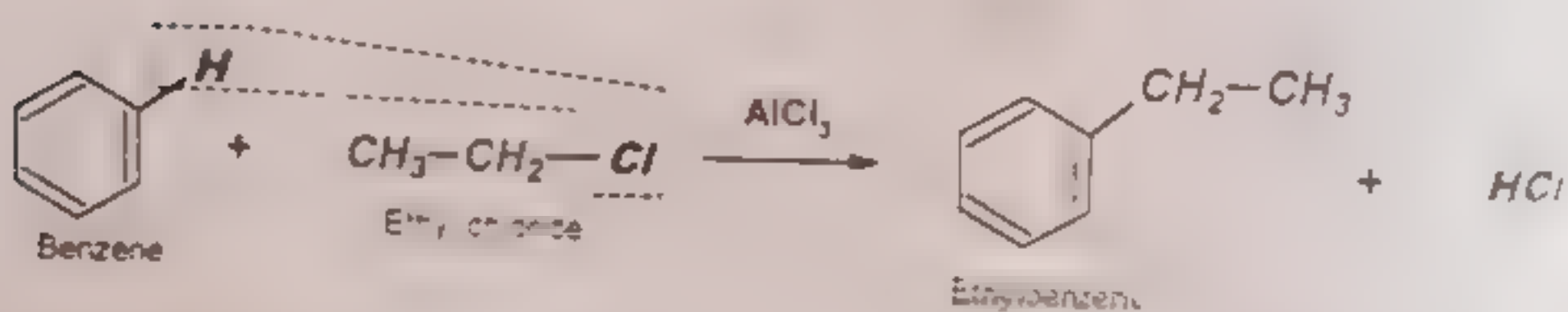
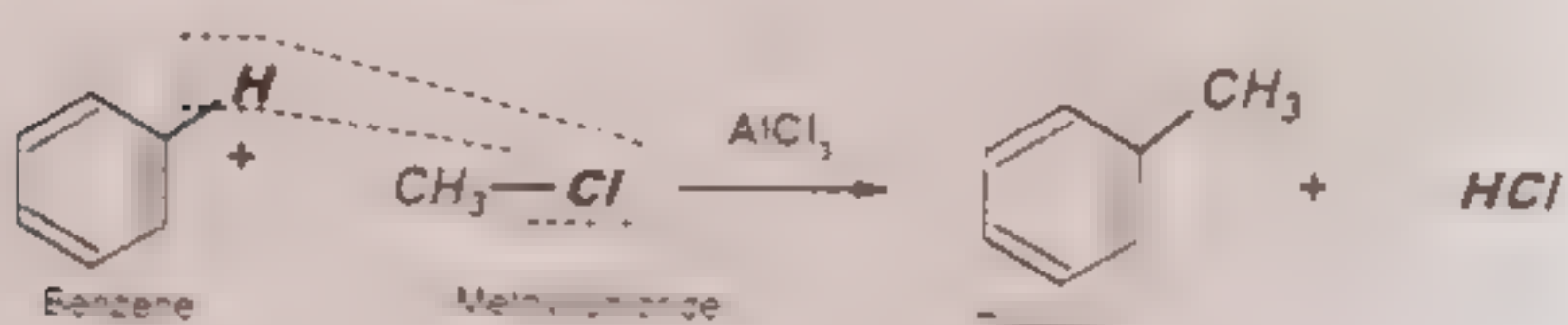
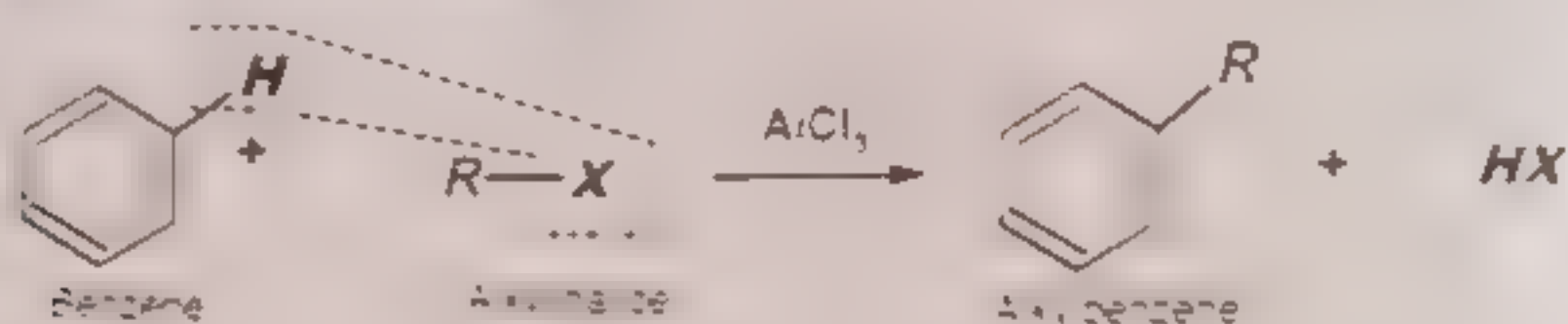


When alkyl benzenes are treated with chlorine or bromine the presence of are substituted

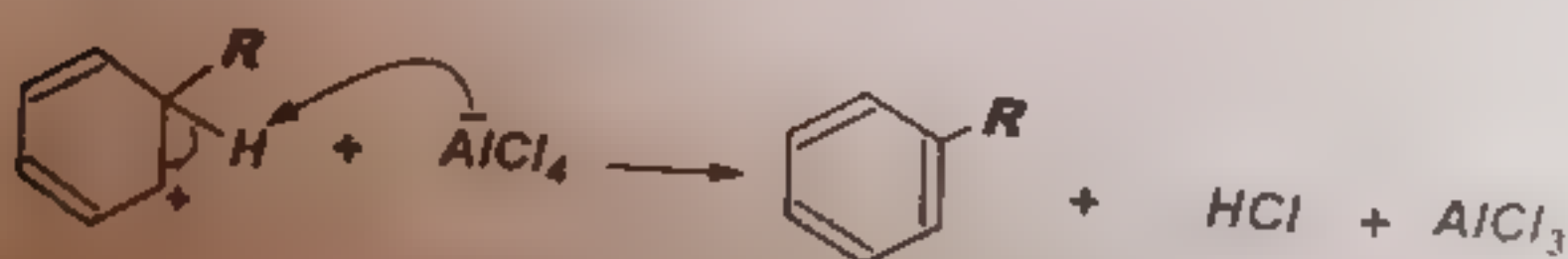
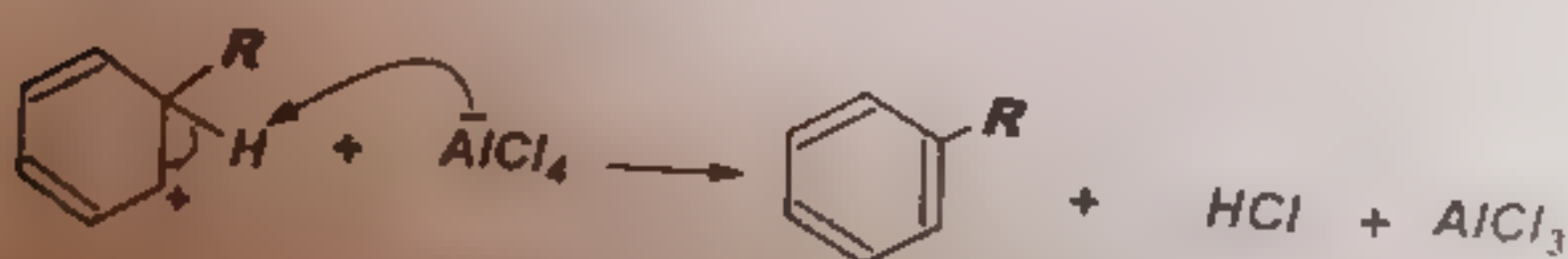
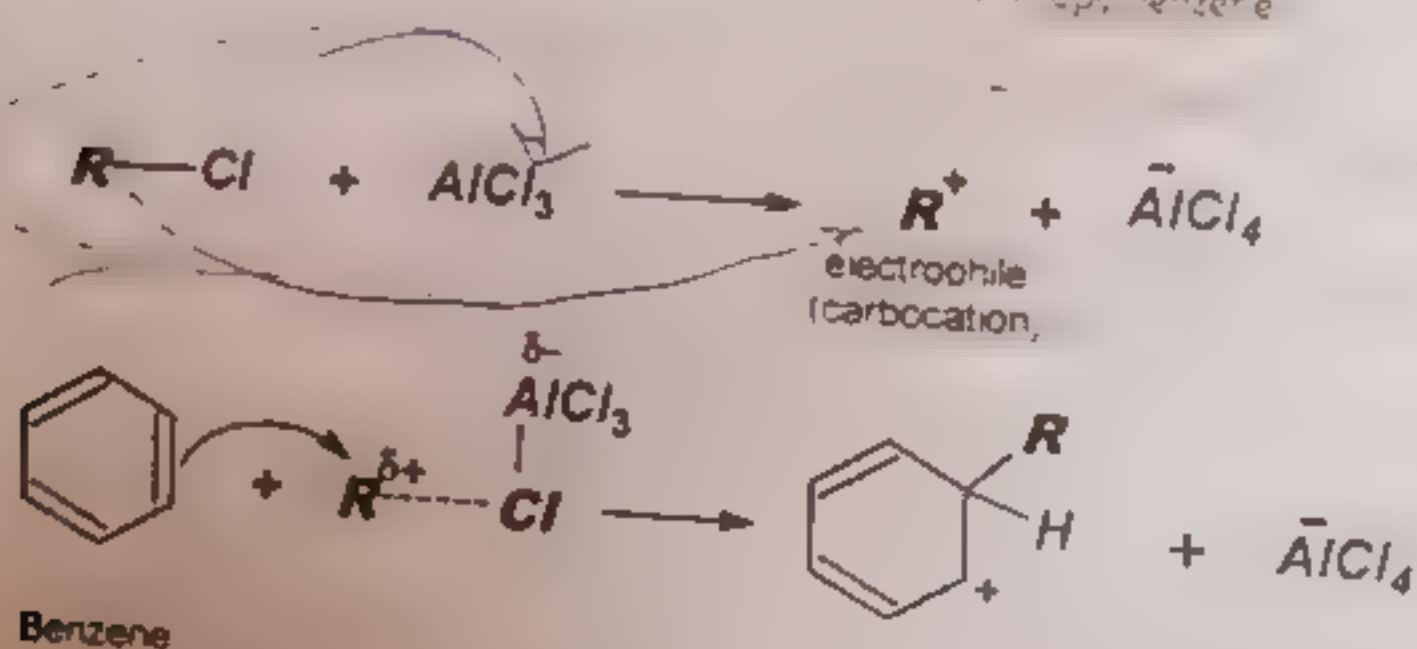


Exercise Q3 5 Explain Friedel Crafts alkylation and acylation with complete mechanism

FRIEDEL-CRAFTS ALKYLATION

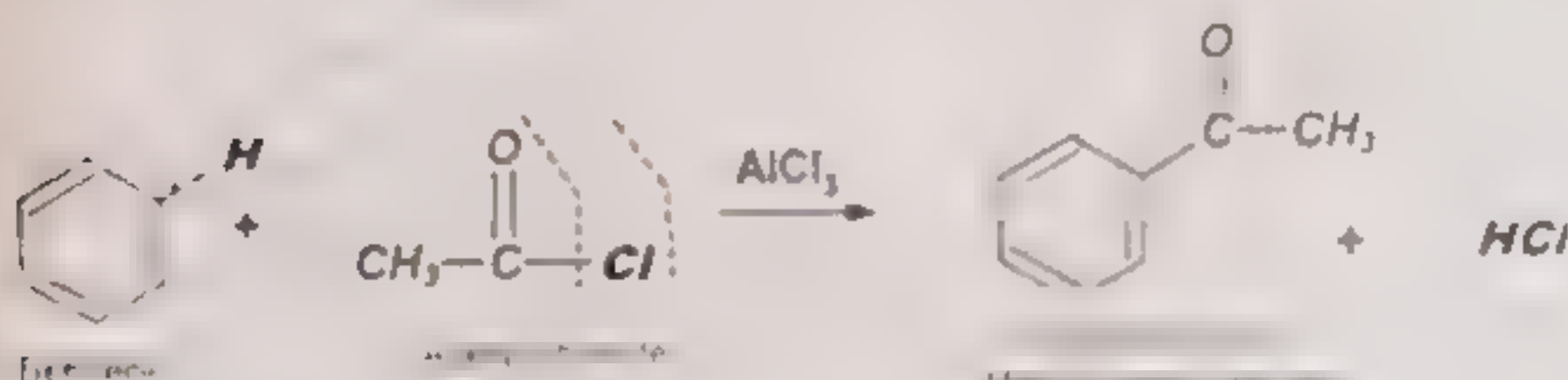


Mechanism:

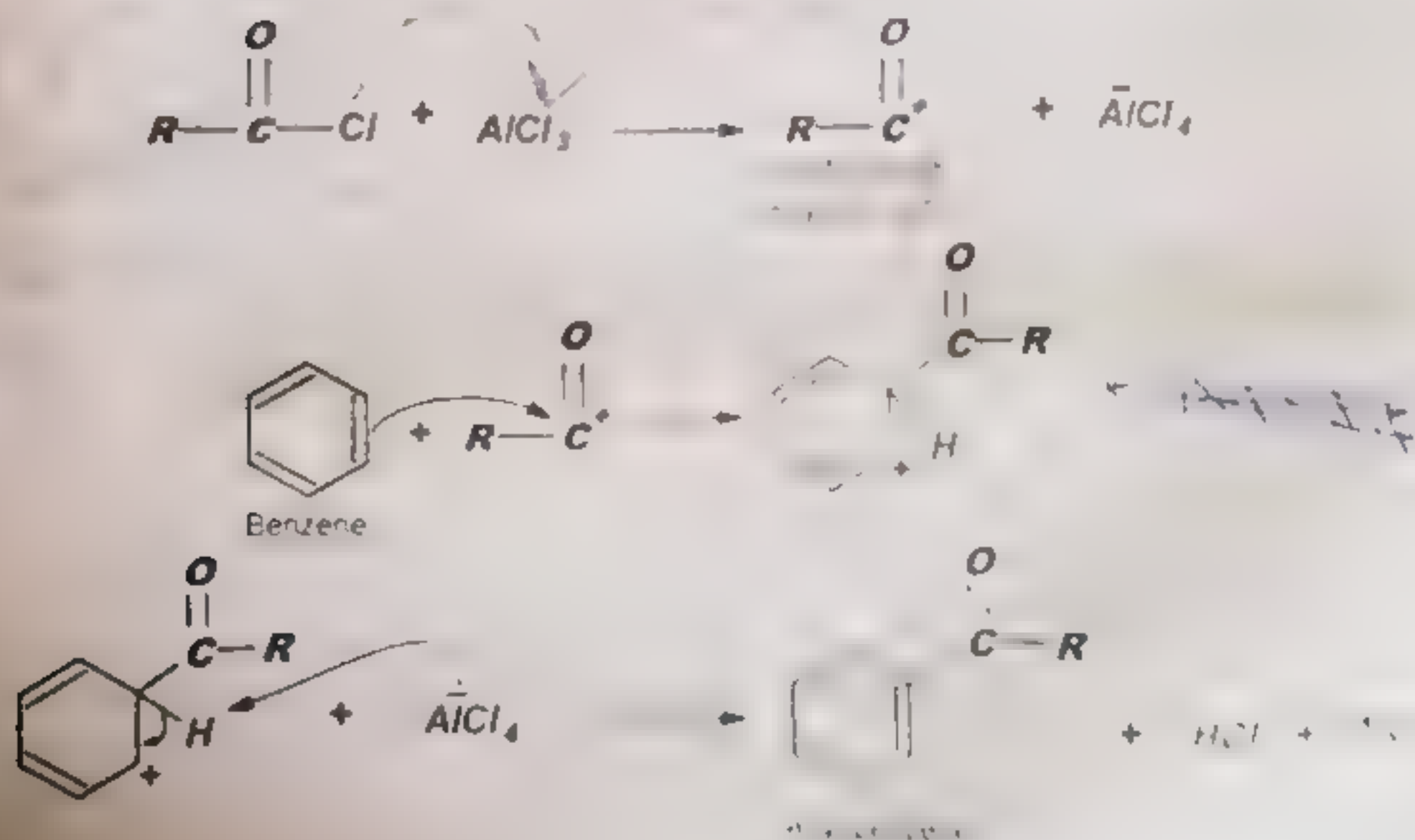


RIEDEL-CRAFTS ACYLATION

For introduction of acyl group $R-C(=O)-$ into benzene ring, anhydrous $AlCl_3$ is called Friedel Crafts Acylation or Acylation.



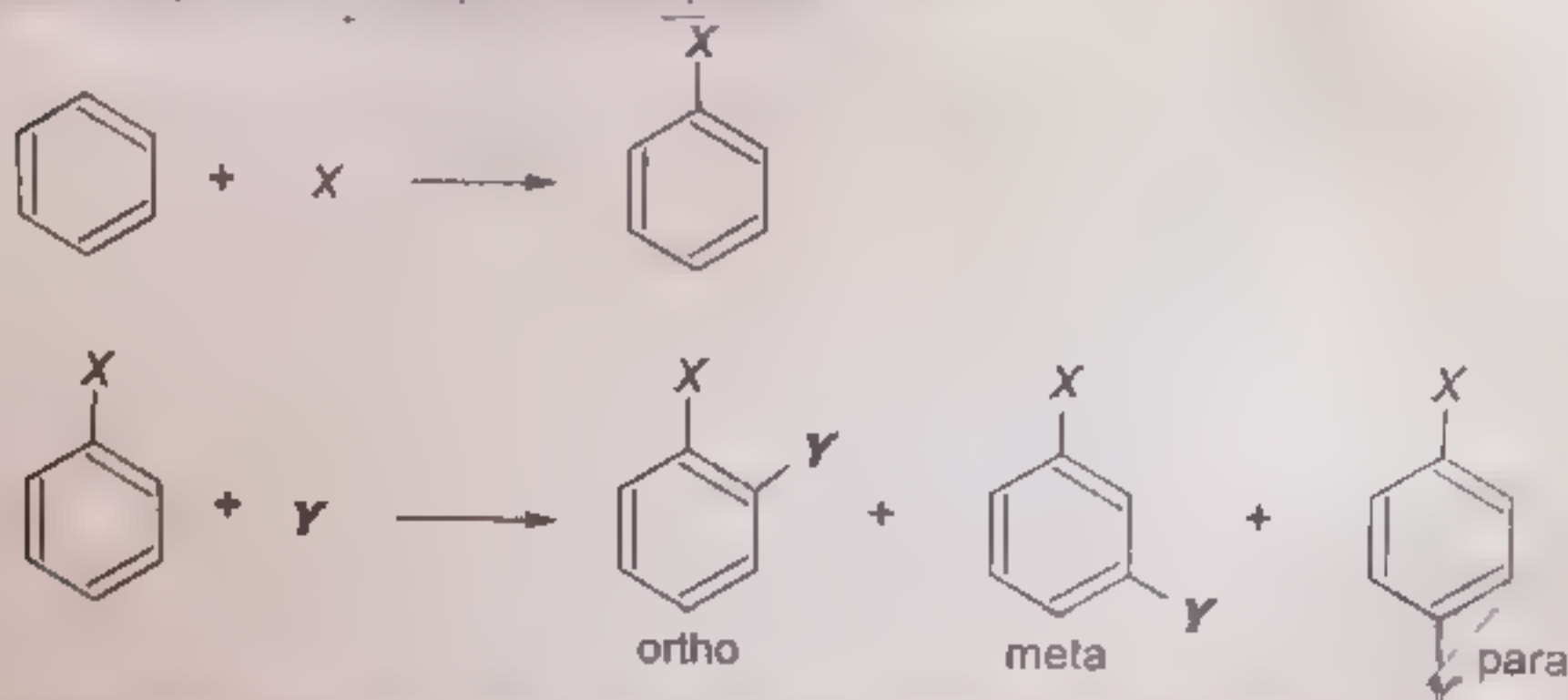
Mechanism



SUBSTITUENT EFFECTS

(Table of Substituent Effects) and Making Poly-substituted Benzenes

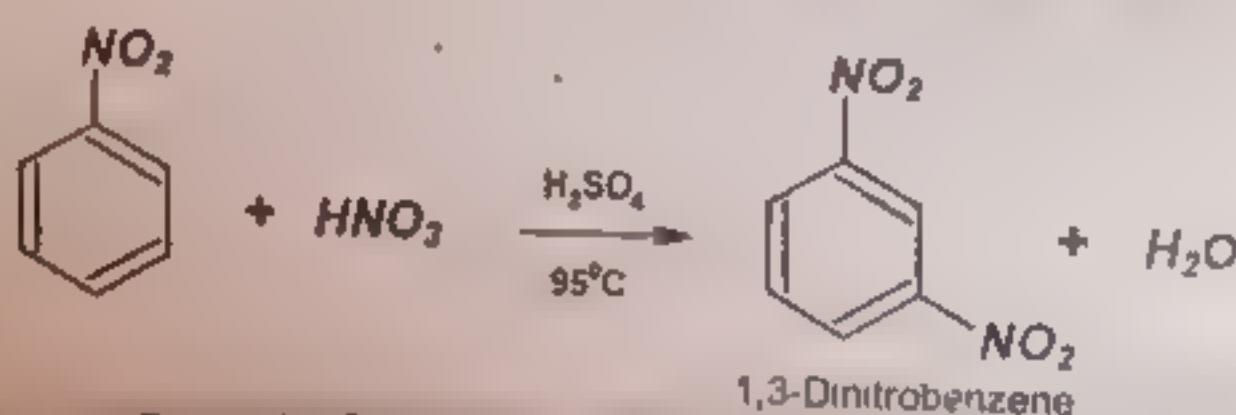
- When an electrophilic substitution reaction takes place on benzene ring, we get only one monosubstituted benzene because all the six positions in the ring are equivalent.
- However, the position of a second group into the ring depends on the nature of the first group substituted and enter in ortho, para or meta position.



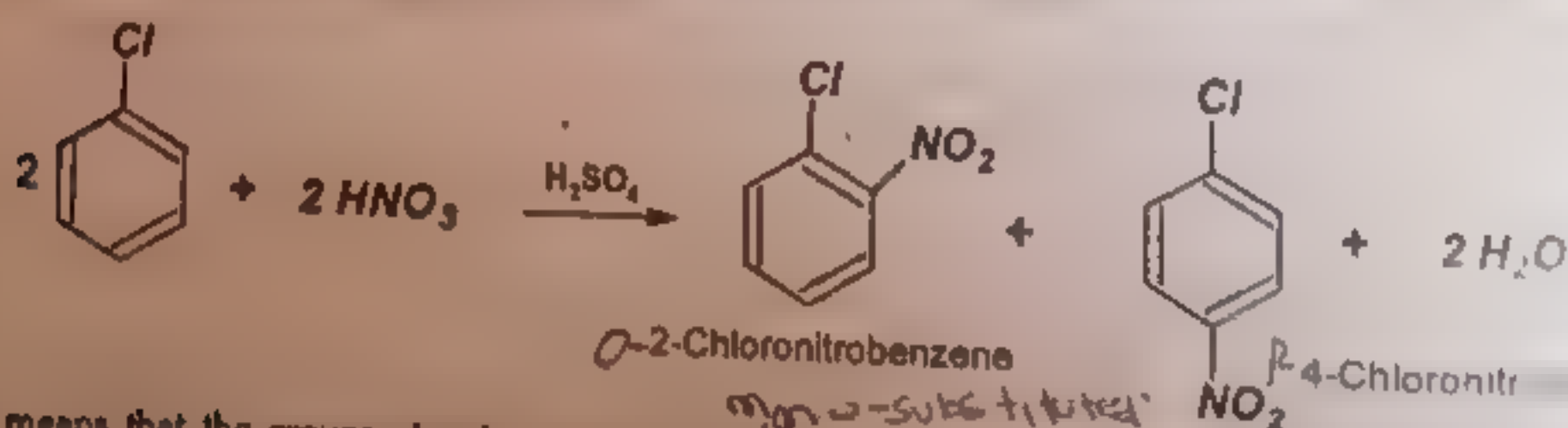
- On chance basis 40% ortho (20% + 20%), 40% meta (20% + 20%) and 20% para disubstituted products are expected.
- However, the results do not agree with chance substitution ratio.

Examples

(i) m-nitrochlorobenzene is the main product of the following halogenation reaction



(ii) On the other hand, a mixture of 2-chloronitrobenzene and 4-chloronitrobenzene is obtained from nitration of chlorobenzene.



It means that the groups already present in the benzene ring directs the second incoming group to determine its position.

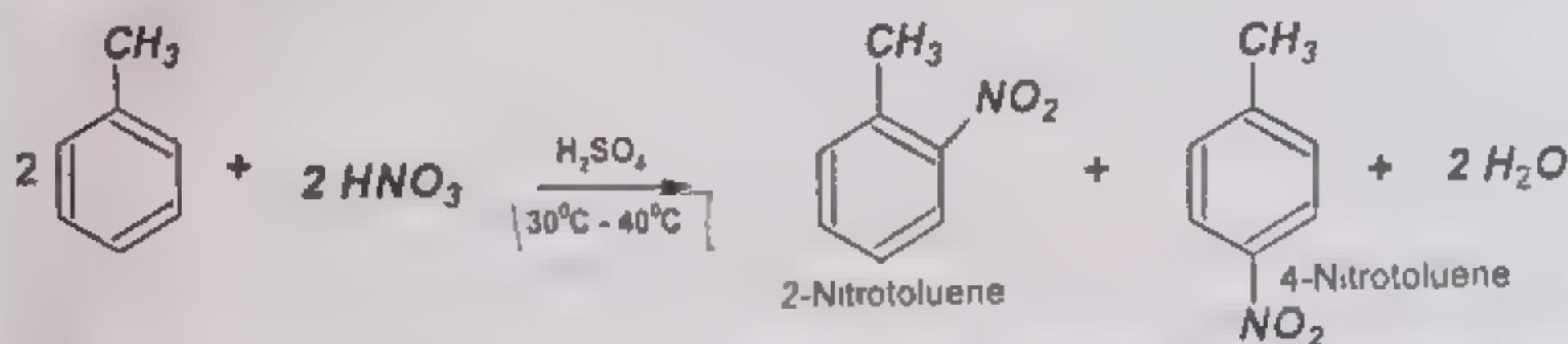
There are two types of groups

- (1) ortho- and para-directing groups
- (2) meta-directing groups

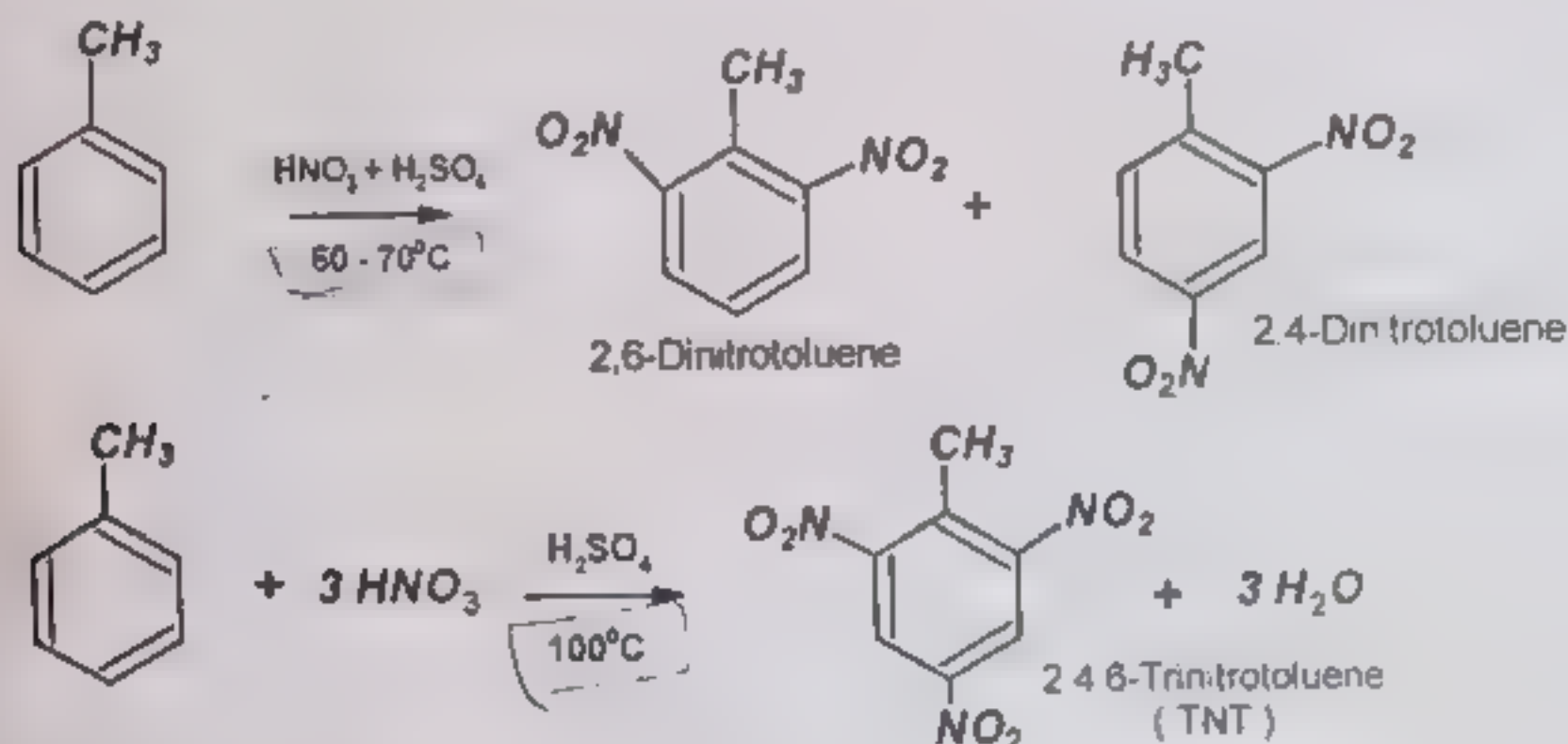
ORTHO AND PARA DIRECTING GROUPS

These groups release electrons towards the benzene ring, at ortho and para positions. Because these positions are richer in electron for attack of an electrophile. The second group is substituted at ortho and para positions. They generally increase the reactivity of benzene ring except halogens.

Example:



The electron releasing effect of methyl groups is significant and it makes the ring a good nucleophile. Due to this increased reactivity, more nitro groups can enter the ring.

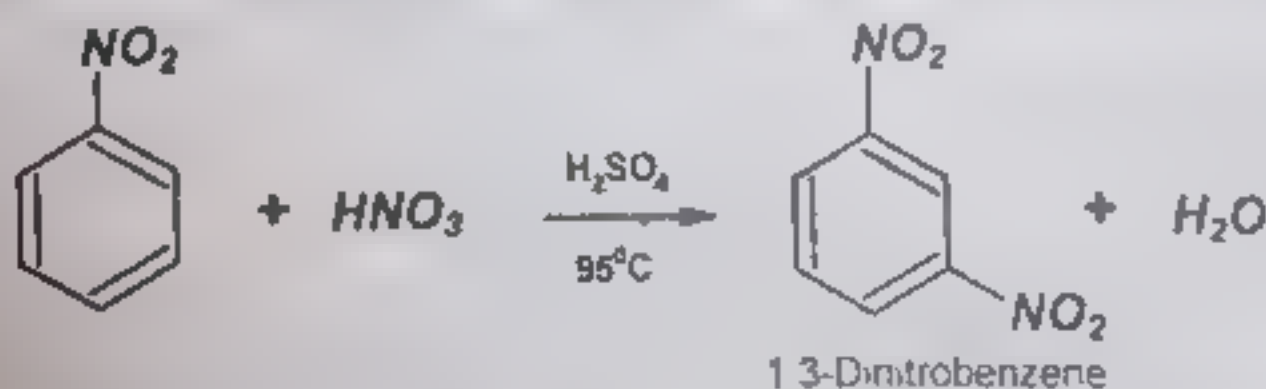


Examples (ortho- and para- directing groups):

$-\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_2$, $-\text{NH}_2$, $-\text{OH}$, $-\text{OR}$, $-\text{OCH}_3$, $-\text{Cl}$, $-\text{Br}$, $-\text{I}$

META-DIRECTING GROUPS

These groups withdraw the electrons of the benzene ring from ortho and para positions. Due to the electron withdrawing effect of such substituents, the ortho and para positions are more electron deficient than the meta position. Thus the incoming electrophile will prefer to attack on meta position rather than ortho and para positions. These groups are called meta-directing groups. These groups decrease the chemical reactivity of benzene.



The substitution of third nitro groups is not possible because nitro group has deactivated the ring.

Examples (meta-directing groups):

$-\text{NR}_2$, $-\text{CN}$, $-\text{COOH}$, $-\text{CHO}$, $-\text{COR}$

RULE:

If the electronegativity of the atom of the group attached to the benzene ring is greater than any atom of the benzene ring, the whole group will act as electron repelling/ will increase the reactivity of benzene ring towards the entrant to ortho, para positions. On the other hand If the electronegativity of such atom is less, it will be under constraint and it turn withdraw electron from benzene ring making it less reactive and directing the new entrant to meta position

Examples

- (i) -NH_2 Nitrogen with greater electronegativity from hydrogen
- (ii) -Cl has no other atom hence will have no danger of pulling electrons. Thus it is electron repelling and p -directing group. Hence o - and p -directing
- (iii) $\text{-N}=\text{O}$ Nitrogen with less electronegativity from O. Hence m -directing
- (iv) In $\text{-SO}_3\text{H}$, the electronegativity of oxygen is greater than that of that of S. hence oxygen draws electrons which in turn withdraws electrons from benzene ring hence m -directing

MAKING POLYSUBSTITUTED BENZENES

Since the position of electrophilic attack on a substituted benzene ring is controlled by the substituent present rather than the approaching electrophile, the order of events in the synthesis of polysubstituted benzene need careful planning to ensure success.

The two factors that need to be monitored are:

- regiochemistry (region-selective means position on benzene ring)
- reactivity (for example Friedel-Crafts reactions are limited to halobenzenes and activated benzenes)

QUICK QUIZ-7

1. (a) Describe the structure of benzene on the basis of following

- (i) atomic orbital treatment Page 184
- (ii) resonance method Page 186

✓ (b) Prove that benzene has a cyclic structure. (Exercise Q3 (4): will you prove that benzene has cyclic structure? Benzene adds three hydrogen molecule which shows the presence of three double bonds. Molecular formula of benzene is C_6H_6 which do not corresponds to any alkene or alkyne. Hence it should have cyclic structure. Moreover, the product formed during hydrogenation is cyclohexane, a cyclic compound.

The cyclic structure was given by Kekule and then confirmed by X-ray analysis. The structure of benzene is

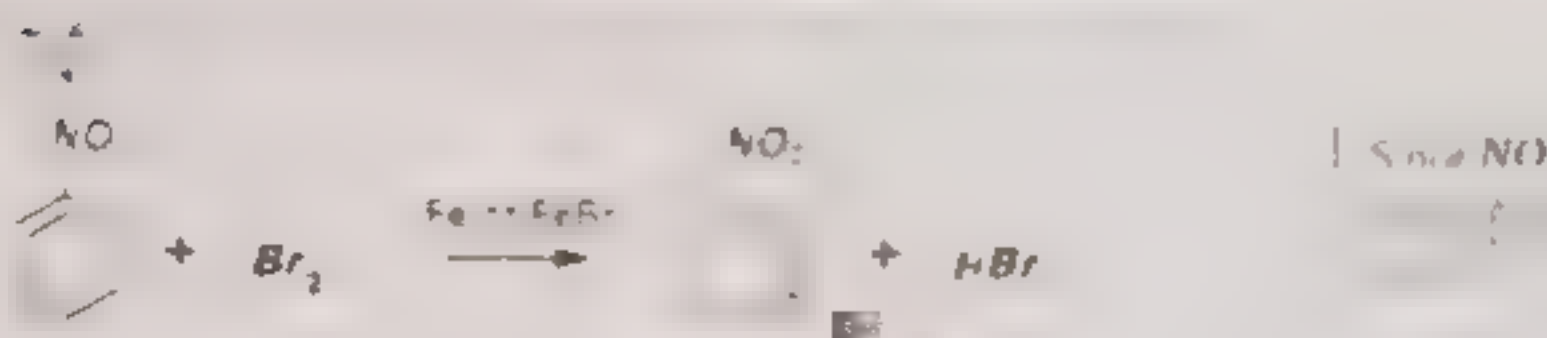


2. Predict the major products of bromination of the following compounds

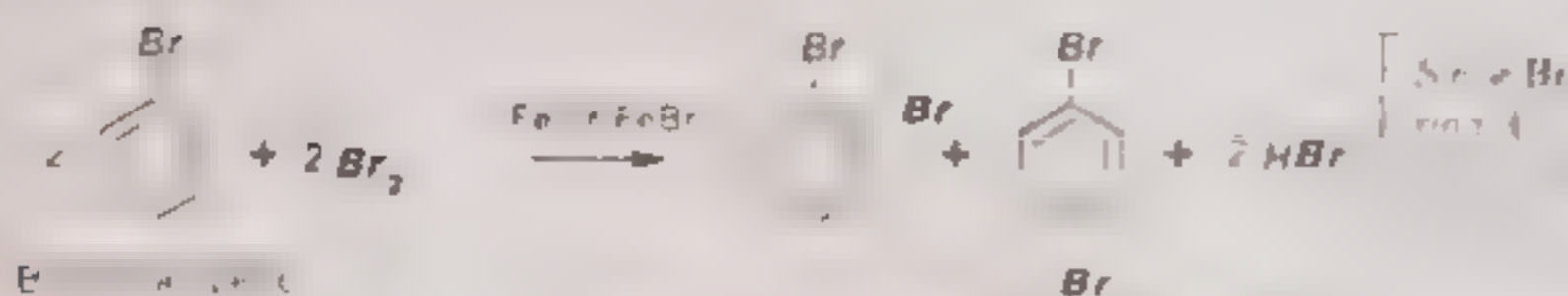
a) Toluene



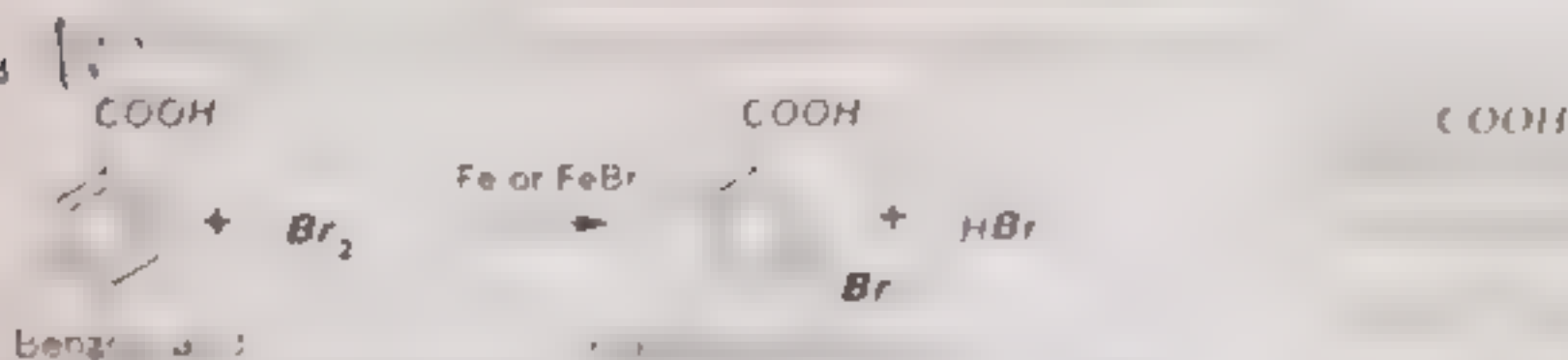
b) Nitrobenzene



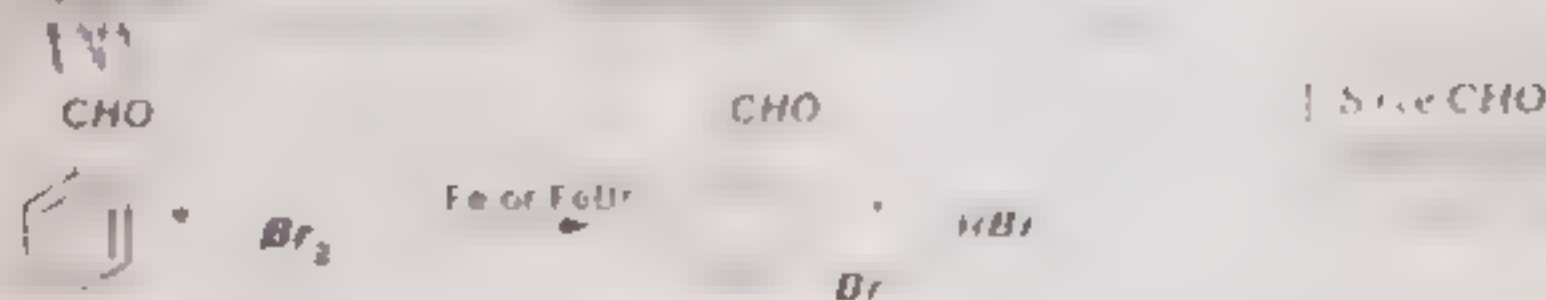
c) Bromobenzene



d) Benzoic acid



e) Benzaldehyde

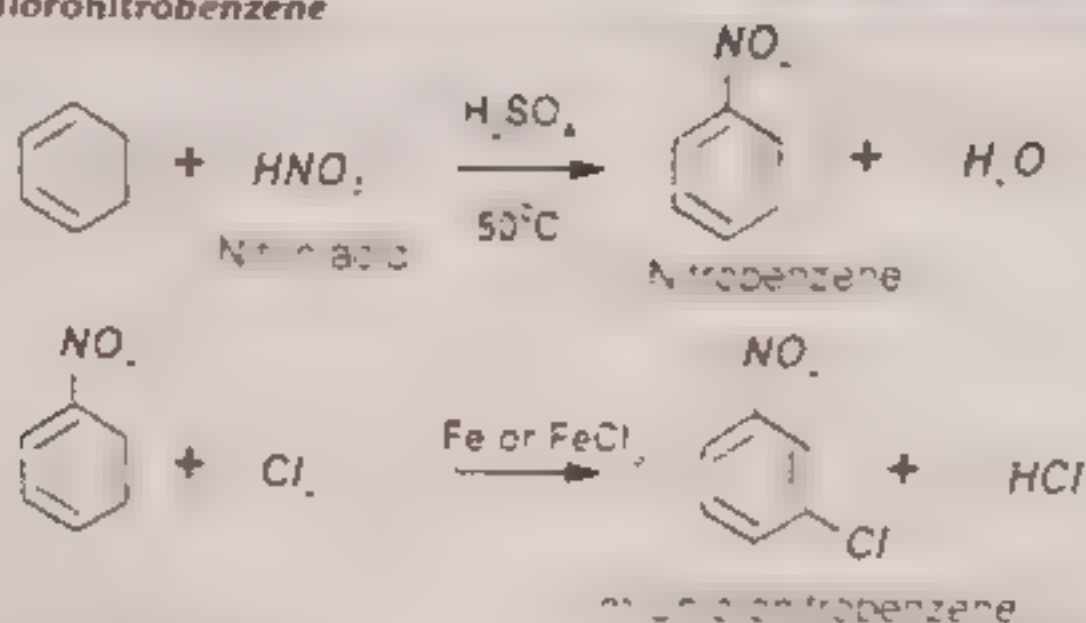
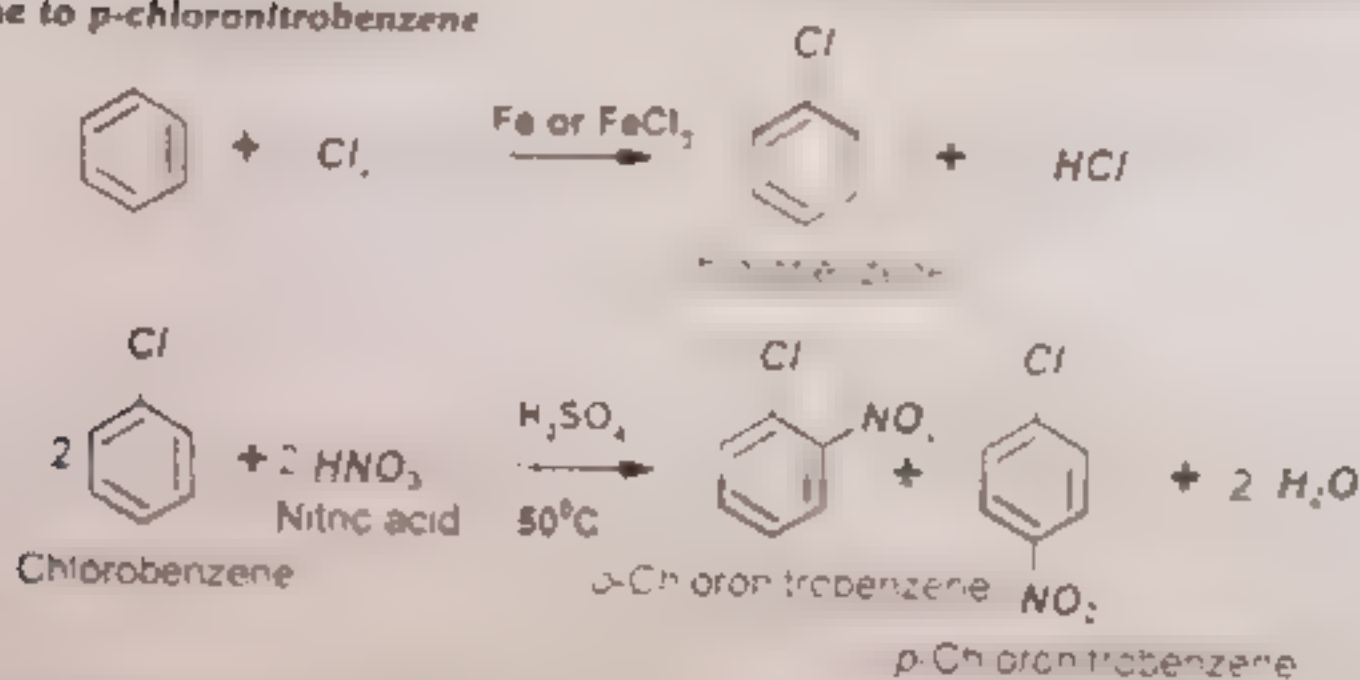
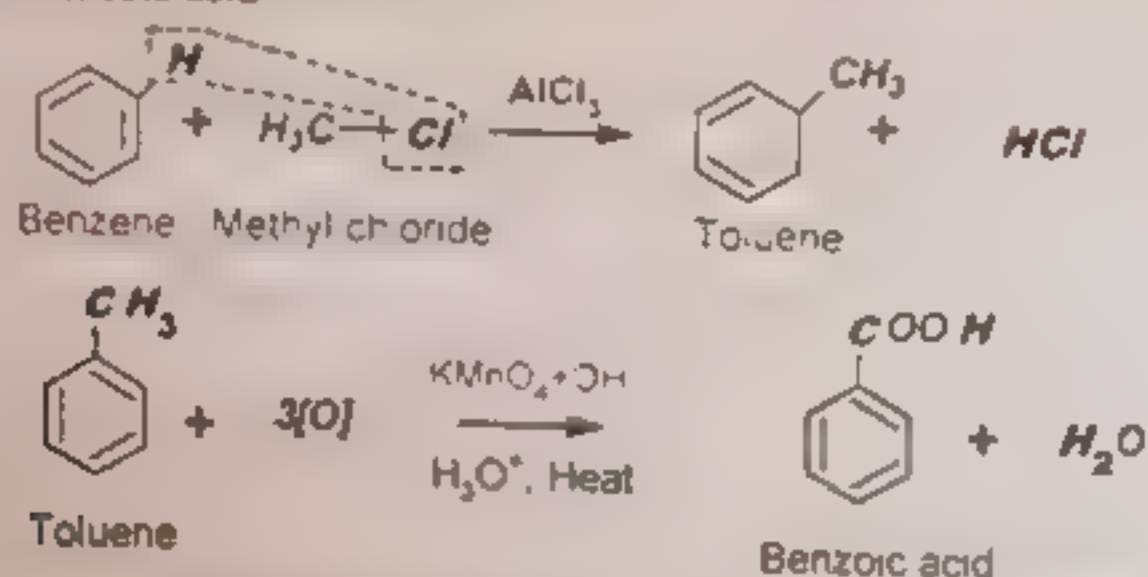


f) Phenol



or



SOME IMPORTANT CONVERSIONS**(I) Benzene to m-chloronitrobenzene****(II) Benzene to p-chloronitrobenzene****(III) Benzene to Benzoic acid****SOCIETY, TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE****HYDROCARBONS IMPORTANT AS FUEL FOR FUTURE ENERGY NEEDS OF PAKISTAN**

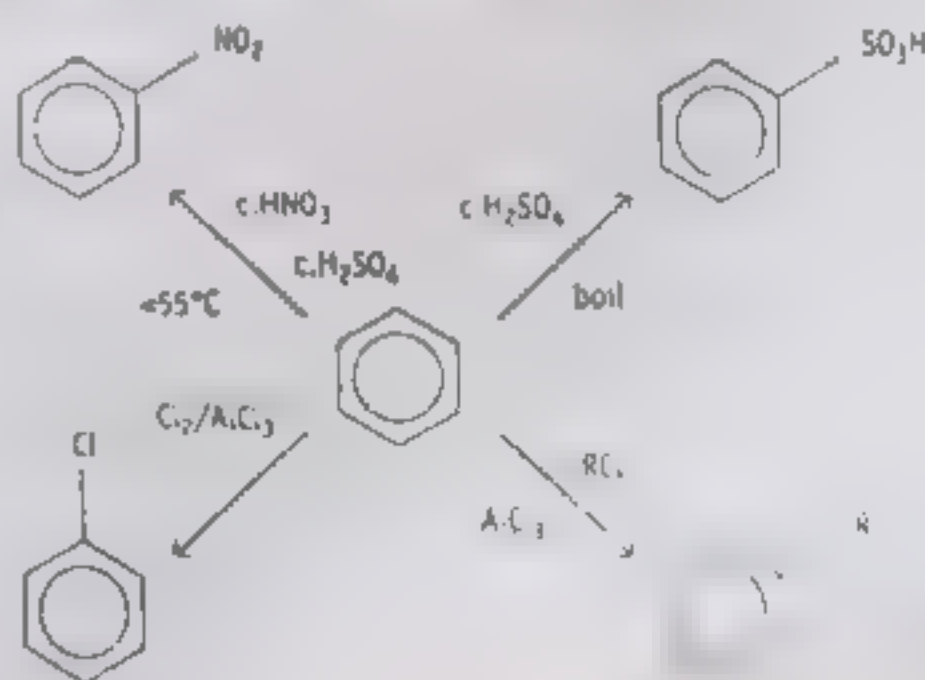
Ethanol, Natural Gas, Propane, Biodiesel - an alternative fuel based on vegetable oils or animal fats, Methanol also known as wood alcohol, P-Series fuels - a blend of ethanol, natural gas liquids and methyl tetrahydrofuran (MeTHF). P-Series fuels can be used alone or mixed with gasoline in any ratio by simply adding it to the fuel.

USES OF HYDROCARBONS

- (1) Butane is used as a fuel in lighter
- (2) Butane is also used in some camping stoves
- (3) Crude petroleum is lighter than water.
- (4) Coal is used for the manufacturing of synthetic petrol
- (5) Ethylene is the hormone that causes tomatoes and apples to ripen
- (6) Oxyacetylene torch is used for cutting of metals
- (7) Methane is used to manufacture urea fertilizer
- (8) Kekule was the scientist who drew the structure of benzene

KEY POINTS

- Compared to other functional groups, alkanes tend to have low melting and boiling points and very low solubility in polar solvents such as water.
- Alkanes are the simplest organic compounds, comprised of only sp^3 hybridized C and H atoms connected by σ bonds. They have a generic formula of C_nH_{2n+2} .
- Branched alkanes are more stable than linear alkanes, e.g. 2-methylpropane is more stable than n-butane.
- Alkanes react with halogens by a radical mechanism to give haloalkanes. The mechanism consists of three steps, initiation, propagation and termination.
- Alkenes are unsaturated hydrocarbons with at least one $C=C$ double bond. A double bond is composed of a σ and a π bond. Carbon atoms in alkenes are sp^2 hybridized.
- Alkenes are very reactive compounds. They undergo electrophilic reactions very easily.
- Addition of unsymmetrical reagent to an unsymmetrical alkene takes place in accordance with the Markownikov's Rule.
- Compounds that have the same molecular formula but different chemical structures are called isomers.
- Constitutional** (or structural) isomers differ in the order in which the atoms are connected so they contain different functional groups and / or bonding patterns.
- Example:** 1-propanol, 2-propanol and ethyl methyl ether (C_3H_8O).
- Stereoisomers** contain the same functional groups and differ only in the arrangement of atoms in space.
- Conformational** isomers (or conformers or rotamers) are stereoisomers produced by rotation about σ bonds, typically rapidly interconnecting at room temperature.
- Configurational** isomers are stereoisomers that do not readily interconvert at room temperature and can (in principle at least) be separated.
- Geometric** isomers are configurational isomers that differ in the spatial position around a bond with restricted rotation (e.g. a double bond).
- Optical** isomers are configurational isomers that differ in the 3D relationship of the atoms to one another.
- Enantiomers** are optical isomers that are non-superimposable mirror images.
- Diastereomers** are optical isomers that are not enantiomers.
- Hydrocarbons containing a triple bond are known as alkynes or acetylenes.
- Alkynes undergo addition reactions and two molecules of a reagent are added in each step.
- The decreasing reactivity order of alkanes, alkenes and alkynes are as follows: $Alkynes > Alkenes > Alkanes$.
- Aromatic hydrocarbons include benzene and all those compounds that resemble benzene in their chemical behavior.
- Aromatic hydrocarbons containing one benzene ring in their molecules are called monocyclic aromatic hydrocarbons.
- Aromatic hydrocarbons containing two or more benzene rings in their molecules are called polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons.
- The electrons in benzene are loosely held and the ring acts as a source of electrons. Hence benzene is readily attacked by electrophiles in the presence of a catalyst.
- Since electrophilic substitution reactions lead to resonance stabilized benzene derivatives so substitution are the main reaction of benzene.
- Resonance energy of benzene is 152 kJ/mole.
- Structure of benzene is the resonance hybrid of two Kekule's structures and three Dewar's structures.
- The C_6H_5- group is called phenyl.
- The characteristic reaction type of benzene is electrophilic substitution. Some important substitution reactions are shown on the following diagram.
- Groups like NH_2 , NHR , $-OR$, $-SH$, $-OCOR$, $-X$, $-OH$ etc which increase the electron density in the nucleus and facilitate further electrophilic substitutions are known as ortho- and para-directing groups.
- Groups like CN , $-CHO$, NH_2 , NR_2 , CCl_3 which hinder further substitution in the benzene nucleus are known as meta-directing groups.



EXERCISE

Q1: Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

- (i) The molecule of ethane possesses which hybridization;
 (a) sp^3 (b) sp^2 (c) sp (d) sp^3d
- (ii) The sp^2 hybrid orbitals are oriented in space at one angle;
 (a) 109.5° (b) 180° (c) 100° (d) 120°
- (iii) The geometry of acetylene is, SF
 (a) angular (b) bent (c) trigonal (d) linear
- (iv) Which reaction is used as test for the presence of alkene, KMnO₄ / Br₂ / Baeyer's reagent
 (a) reaction of cold diluted alkaline $KMnO_4$ (b) Combustion
 (c) Polymerization (d) Catalytic hydrogenation
- (v) The general formula of alkane is.
 (a) C_nH_{2n+2} (b) C_nH_n (c) C_nH_{2n} (d) C_nH_{2n+1}
- (vi) Soda lime is,
 (a) NaOH (b) KOH (c) Mixture of Na and Ca hydroxide (d) CaO and NaOH
- (vii) The marsh gas is
 (a) Ethane (b) Methane (c) Propane (d) Butane
- (viii) Acidic hydrogen is present in
 (a) Acetylene (b) Ethane (c) Benzene (d) Ethene
- (ix) The benzene molecule contains
 (a) Three double bonds (b) Two double bonds (c) One double bond (d) None of these
- (x) The electrophile in aromatic sulphonation is;
 (a) H_2SO_4 (b) HSO_4^- (c) SO_3 (d) SO_4^{2-}
- (xi) The conversion of n-hexane into benzene by heating in the presence of Pt is called,
 (a) Isomerization (b) Aromatization (c) Dealkylation (d) Rearrangement
- (xii) Catalyst used for Friedel Craft's reaction is;
 (a) HNO_3 (b) $AlCl_3$ (c) $BeCl_2$ (d) NaCl
- (xiii) Benzene cannot undergo
 (a) Elimination (b) Substitution (c) Oxidation (d) Addition
- (xiv) Shape of benzene molecule is
 (a) Pyramidal (b) Linear planar (c) Trigonal (d) Hexagonal planar
- (xv) In which one of the following compounds the benzene ring are isolated;
 (a) Naphthalene (b) Anthracene (c) Phenanthrene (d) Diphenyl methane
- (xvi) Two compounds have the same composition and also have the same atoms attached to the same atom although with different orientations in space. These compounds are
 (a) identical (b) Position isomers (c) structural isomers (d) stereoisomers
- (xvii) The isomers of a substance must have
 (a) same chemical properties (b) same molecular weight
 (c) same structural formula (d) same functional groups
- (xviii) Ethanol and dimethyl ether are best considered:
 (a) structural isomers (b) stereoisomers (c) enantiomers (d) diastereomers
- (xix) Alkenes show geometrical isomers due to
 (a) asymmetry (b) rotation around a single bond
 (c) resonance (d) restricted rotation around a double bond
- (xx) Geometrical isomerism is shown by
 (a) lactic acid (b) maleic acid (c) 1-butene (d) 1,1-dichloroethane



(xvi) A molecule is said to be chiral

(xvii) Which of the statements is false regarding chiral compounds

(a) (i)

(xviii) An optically active compound

(b) white

(d) in solid

(xix) Plane polarized light is affected by

(xx) It is possible to distinguish between optical isomers

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

(i) Ans: (a) sp^3

In ethane, each carbon atom is sp^3 hybridized. Because each of them

(ii) Ans: (b) 120°

(iii) Ans: (d) linear

Both carbon atoms of acetylene are sp hybridized. The molecule of $H-C \equiv C-H$

(iv) Ans: (a) reaction of cold dilute alkaline $KMnO_4$

(v) Ans: (a) C_nH_{2n+2}

The alkanes are saturated compounds. The formula is C_nH_{2n+2} . e.g., the formula of

(vi) Ans: (b) CH_4 and CH_3OH

(vii) Ans: (b) Methane
Methane is found in marsh gas.

(viii) Ans: (a) CH_4 and CH_3OH

(ix) Ans: (d) None of these

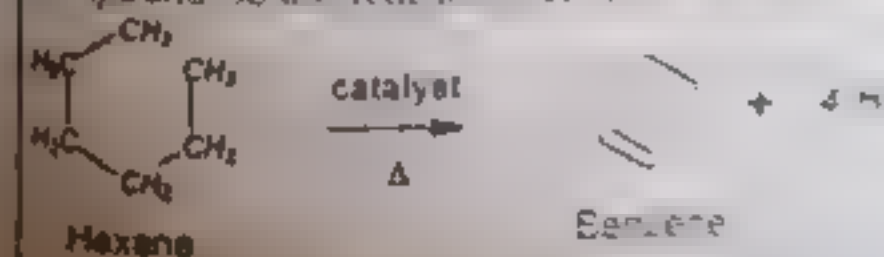
In benzene molecule, the p -electron cloud overlaps with each other to form a delocalized π -electron cloud above and below the plane of the ring. σ -electrons are not present.

(x) Ans: (b) 90°

(xi) Ans: (b) Aromatization

Since an aromatic compound is formed, so this reaction is called aromatization.

(xii) Ans: (a) CH_4 and CH_3OH

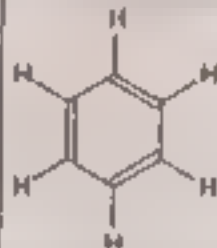


(xlii) Ans: (a) Elimination

Benzene give substitution, oxidation and addition reactions only. Elimination reactions are not possible.

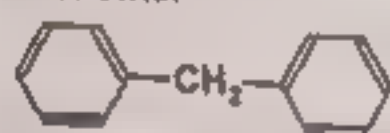
(xlv) Ans: (d) Hexagonal planar

X rays analysis shows that benzene is hexagonal planar.



(lvi) Ans: (d) Diphenyl methane

In Diphenyl methane, both benzene rings are isolated from each other.



(xvi) Ans: (d) stereoisomers

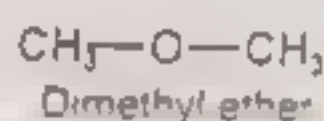
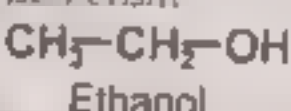
By definition, the compounds having same atoms attached to the same atom, but different orientations in space are stereoisomers. This is called stereoisomerism.

(xvii) Ans: (b) same molecular weight

The isomers have same molecular formula. Hence, they must have same molecular weight as well.

(xviii) Ans: (a) structural isomers

1-propanol and dimethyl ether have same molecular formula (C_3H_8O) but different functional groups. So, they are structural isomers or chain isomers.

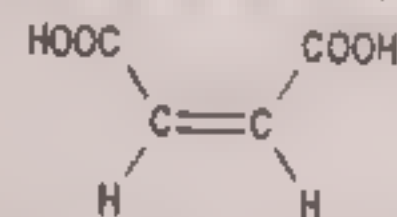


(xix) Ans: (d) restricted rotation around a double bond

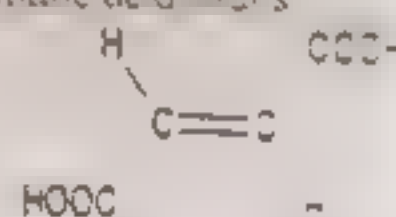
Free rotation cannot occur around double bond. So, the rotation is restricted and geometrical isomerism is resulted.

(xx) Ans: (b) maleic acid

Maleic acid fulfills the conditions of geometrical isomerism. It is a cis-isomer. Its other isomer is fumaric acid, which is a trans-isomer.



Maleic acid (cis-isomer)



Fumaric acid (trans-isomer)

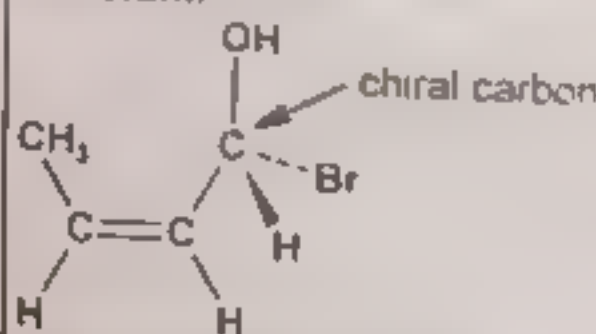
(xxi) Ans: (a) if it cannot be superimposed on its mirror image

By definition, a molecule which has non-superimposable mirror image is called a chiral molecule and it will show optical activity.

(xxii) Ans: (b) have cis and trans isomers

cis- and trans-isomerism is a type of stereoisomerism related to the chiral nature of molecules.

(NOTE: A chiral molecule is one which is not superimposable on its mirror image. If it fulfills the conditions of stereoisomerism, the following compound will show stereoisomerism.)



(xxiii) Ans: (b) when in solution rotate the plane of polarized light

An optically active compound must rotate the plane of polarized light.

(xxiv) Ans: (c) chiral molecules

Chiral molecules are optically active. They rotate the plane of polarized light.

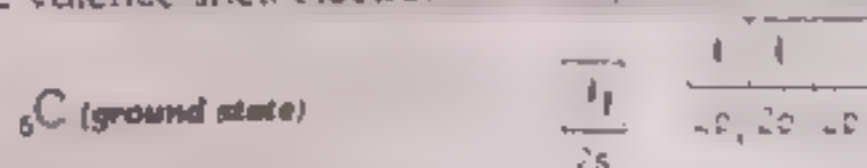
(xxv) Ans: (d) by polarimetry

Optically isomers can rotate the plane of polarized light in different directions. Thus, they can be identified by polarimetry.

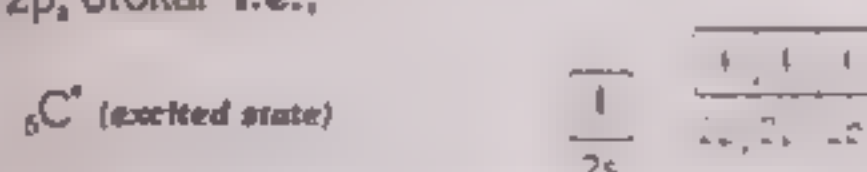
Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

1. Why carbon is sp^3 hybridized in the compounds?

The valence shell electronic configuration of carbon is



So, only two p-orbitals of C are partially filled therefore carbon must form two bonds. However, carbon is tetravalent in most of its compounds. Thus, in excited state of carbon, an electron from 2s orbital is promoted to an empty 2p_z orbital i.e.,



Thus C-atom becomes tetravalent. However, since there is one s-orbital and three p-orbitals for bond formation, therefore, valency is not equivalent. So, the four orbitals of C are mixed together to give four sp^3 -hybrid orbitals which are used to form bonds with other elements in a tetrahedral geometry.

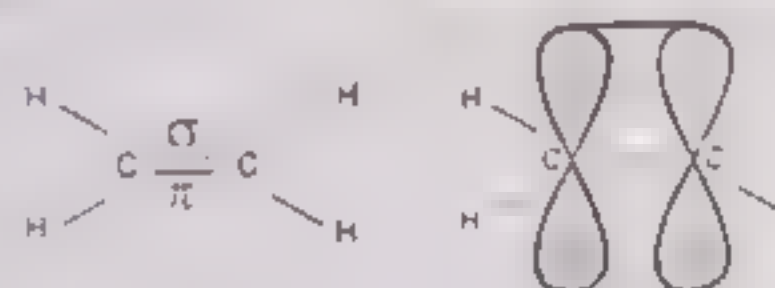
Hence, to explain the equivalent tetravalency and tetrahedral geometry of carbon atoms in compounds, the idea of sp^3 -hybridization is used.

2. How is pi-bond formed in alkenes and alkynes?

PI-bond formation in Alkenes

Consider the example of Ethene (C_2H_4)

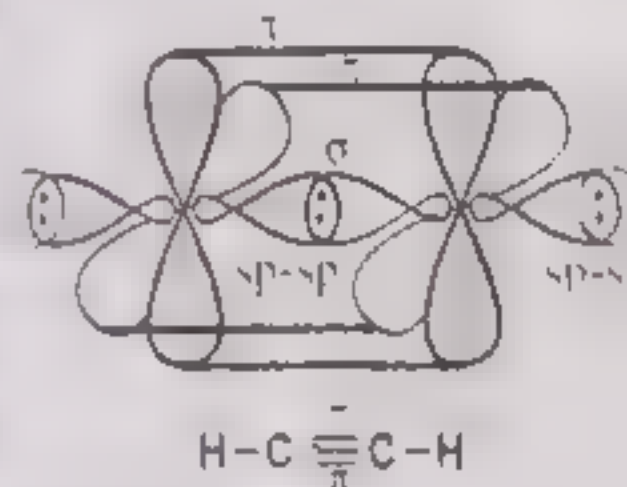
- In C_2H_4 , both carbon atoms show sp^2 -hybridization
- The three sp^2 -hybridized orbitals of each carbon atom are used to form C-C and C-H σ -bonds
- One unhybridized $2p_z$ -orbital of two carbon atoms overlap sideways to form a π -bond



PI-bond formation in Alkynes

Consider the example of Ethyne (C_2H_2)

- In C_2H_2 , both carbon atoms show sp -hybridization
- The two sp -hybridized orbitals of each carbon atom are used to form C-C and C-H σ -bonds
- The unhybridized $2p_y$ and $2p_z$ orbitals of two carbon atoms overlap sideways to form two π -bonds.



In π -bonds probability of finding electron is present above and below the internuclear axis.

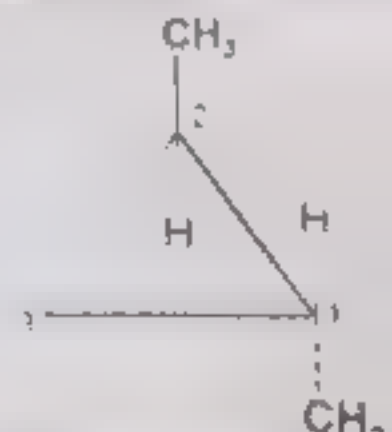
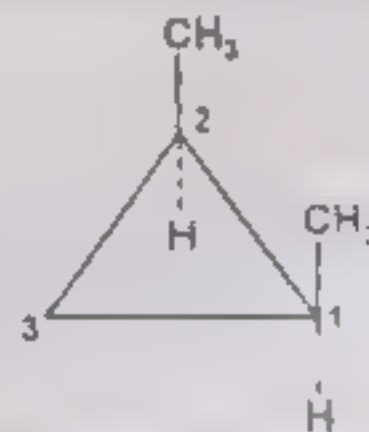
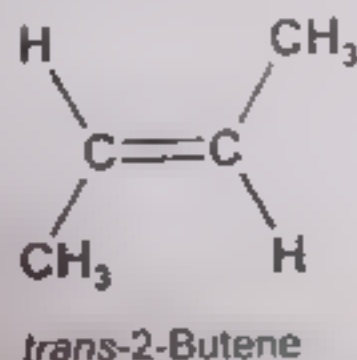
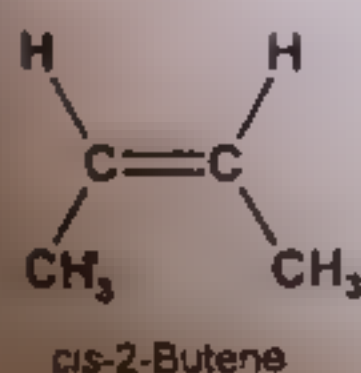
3. What is cis-trans isomerism?

Geometrical isomerism (also called cis-trans isomerism) results from a restriction in rotation about double bonds or about single bonds in cyclic compounds.

Conditions for cis-trans isomerism

- Presence of double bond or cyclic ring
- Two different groups must be attached to each carbon of double bond, or to different carbons of a cyclic compound.

Examples:



4. Why alkanes are relatively chemically inert?

Alkanes are highly unreactive. Hence these are also called Paraffin (Latin, Parum = little, affinis = affinity). Unreactivity of Alkanes is due to two factors:

(i) Inertness of σ -bond

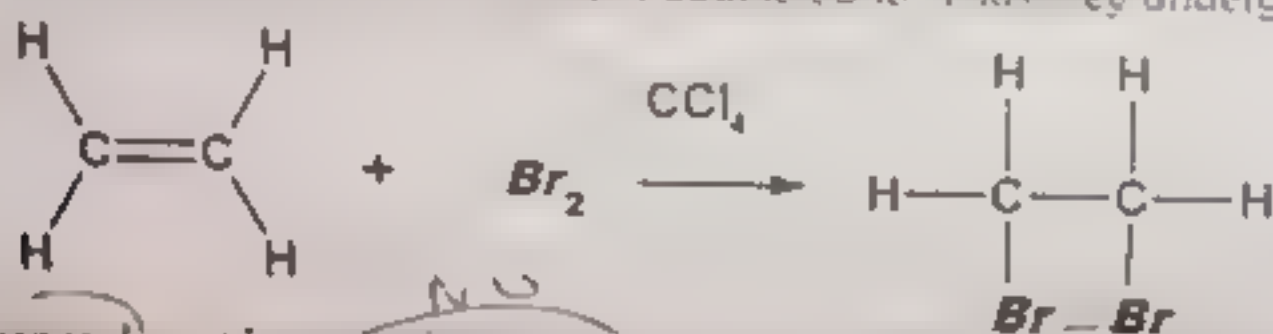
In a σ -bond the electrons are very tightly held between the nuclei. A lot of energy is required to break it. Moreover, the electrons present in a σ -bond cannot attack on any electrophile. Also, they do not undergo nucleophilic attack on them. Hence Alkanes are less reactive.

(ii) Non-polar Bonds:

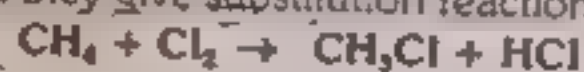
The electronegativity of carbon (2.5) and hydrogen (2.1) do not differ appreciably. Therefore, the electrons between C-H and C-C are equally shared and bonds become non-polar. Hence, the ionic reagents such as acids, alkalis, oxidizing agents etc. find no place in the alkane molecules for reaction. Hence, alkanes are chemically inert.

5. Alkenes usually undergo addition reactions while alkanes do not why?

Alkenes are unsaturated and contain double bond. Thus they undergo electrophilic addition reaction e.g.



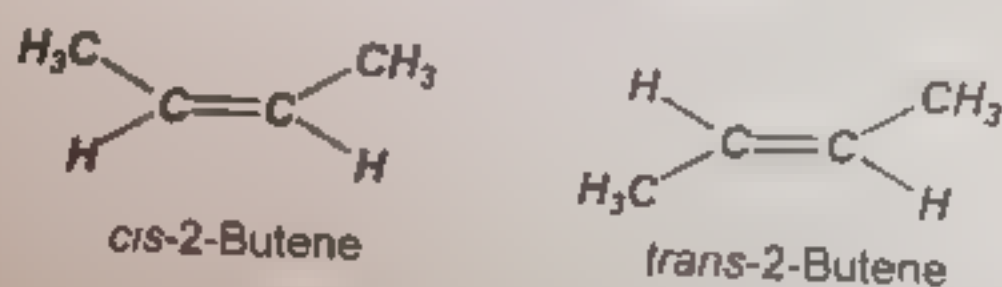
Alkanes do not have double bond. They are saturated compounds so they do not give addition reaction. Instead they give substitution reactions, e.g.

**6. What is stereoisomerism?**

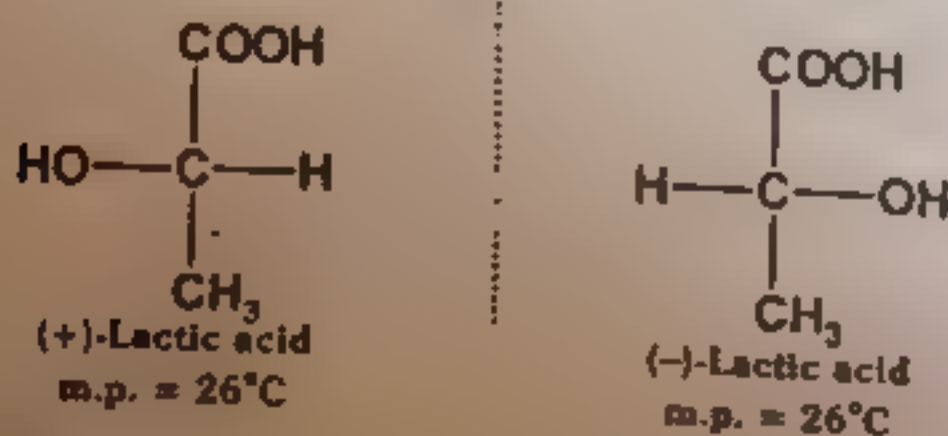
The isomers having equal number of same types of bonds, with identical connectivity, but different arrangement of atoms in space are called stereoisomers and the phenomenon is called stereoisomerism. Study of such isomers is called stereochemistry.

It is of two types

(a) **Geometrical Isomerism or cis, trans-isomerism: Example**



(b) **Optical Isomerism**

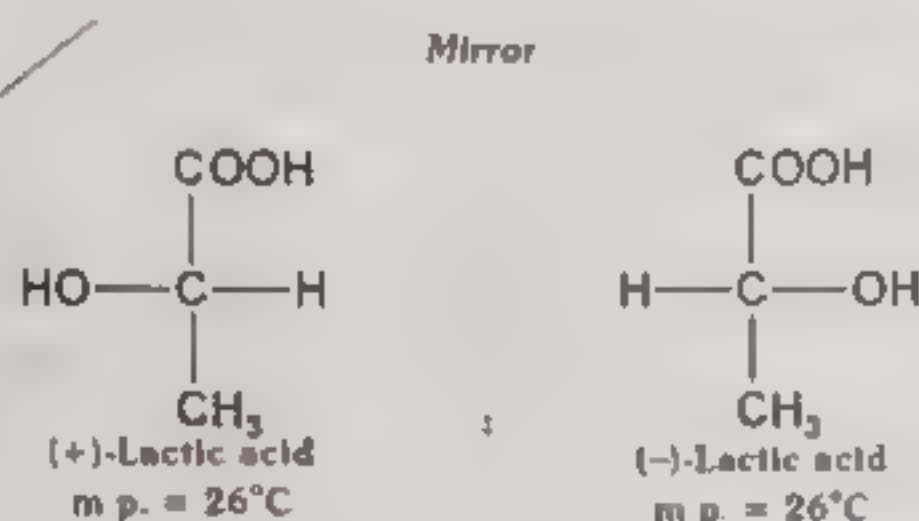


$\text{C}_3(\text{H}_2\text{O})_3$

7. How optical isomers arise?

- An asymmetric molecule has non superimposable mirror image. Such a molecule is known as a chiral molecule, also called a chiral molecule.
- The optically active compound can exist in two isomeric forms which rotate the plane polarized light in opposite directions. These are called Optical Isomers and the phenomenon is known as Optical isomerism.
- The optical isomers have same atoms and same connectivity of atoms. However, they differ in spatial arrangement of atoms.

Example:

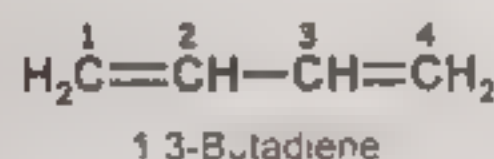


1. What are conjugated bonds formed?

The word "**conjugation**" is derived from a Latin word that means "to link together".

In organic chemistry, it is used to describe the situation that occurs when p-systems are "linked together". Thus, an "extended" p-system exists over a longer series of atoms (e.g. $\text{C}=\text{C}-\text{C}=\text{C}$ or $\text{C}=\text{C}-\text{C}=\text{O}$ etc.)

Example:



2. Why alkenes are more reactive than alkynes?

- Both alkenes and alkynes contain pi bonds. The electrons of pi bond are exposed to attack by electrophiles.
- In alkynes, a triple bond is present. Due to high electrons density between carbon atoms, the $\text{C}-\text{C}$ triple bond is shorter (1.20 Å) than the $\text{C}=\text{C}$ double bond (1.33 Å).
- Due to shorter bond length, the pi-electrons of a triple bond are less exposed and less reactive than alkenes towards electrophilic reagents.

10 Justify the given order of reactivity? Alkenes > Alkynes > Alkanes

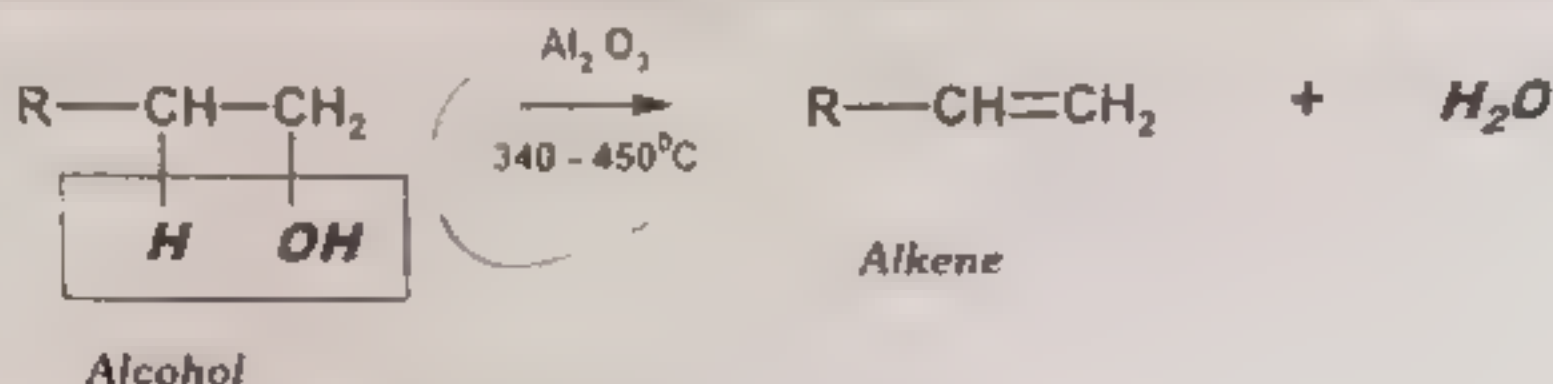
- In alkanes, only sigma bond is present, which is difficult to break. Hence alkanes are least reactive.
- Both alkenes and alkynes contain pi bonds. The electrons of pi bond are exposed to attack by electrophiles.
- In alkynes, a triple bond is present. Due to high electrons density between carbon atoms, the $\text{C}-\text{C}$ triple bond is shorter (1.20 Å) than the $\text{C}=\text{C}$ double bond (1.33 Å). Thus pi-electrons of a triple bond are less exposed and less reactive than alkenes towards electrophilic reagents.
- Thus general order of reactivity towards electrophilic reagent is
Alkenes > Alkynes > Alkanes
- However, alkynes are more reactive than alkenes towards nucleophilic reagents.

11. What is meant by dehydration of alcohols?

Removal of water is called dehydration.

Example

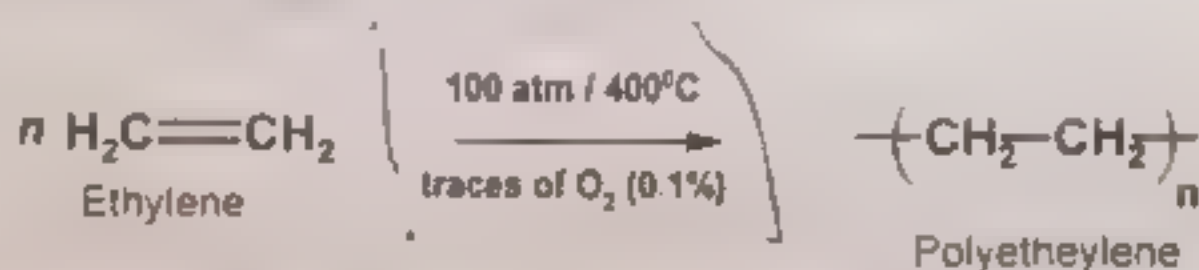
When vapours of alcohol are passed over heated alumina, dehydration takes place with the formation of alkene.



- Other dehydrating agents used are P_4O_{10} , H_2SO_4 , H_3PO_4 .
- The ease of dehydration of various alcohols is in the order
Tertiary alcohol > secondary alcohol > primary alcohol

12. What are polymerization reactions?

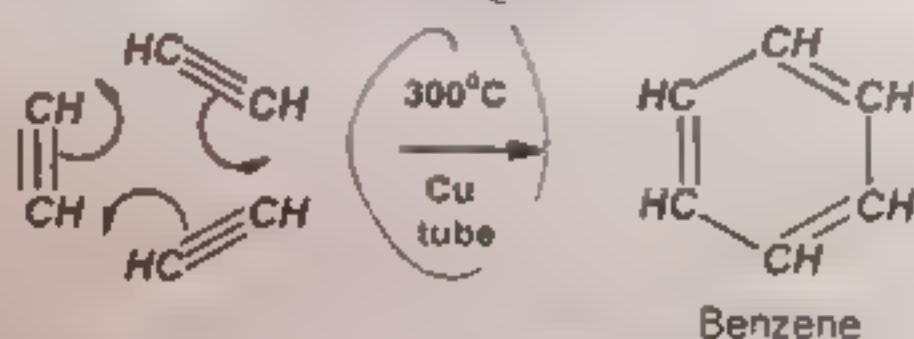
- Polymerization is a process in which small organic molecules which are called monomers come together to form larger molecules. The substances so produced are called polymers.
- Ethene polymerizes to polythene at 400°C at a pressure of 100 atm.



- Good quality of polyethylene is also produced by polymerization of ethene in the presence of auminium triethyl $[\text{Al}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_3]$ and titanium tetrachloride (TiCl_4) catalysts.

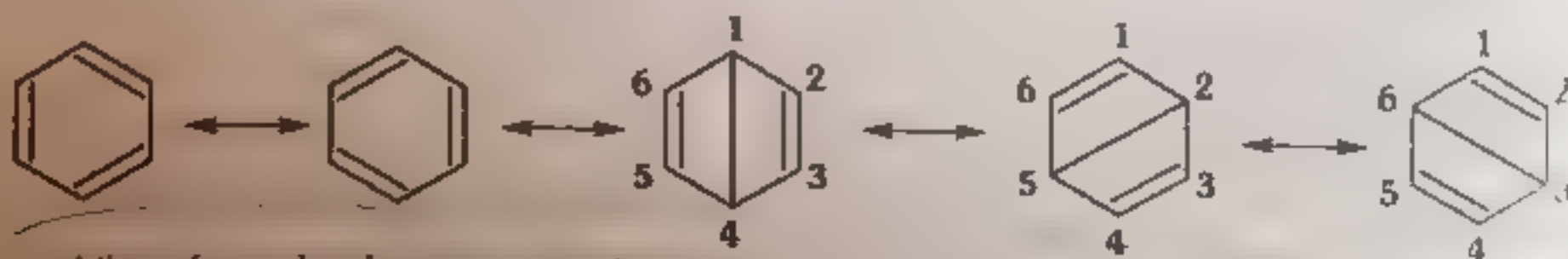
13. How will you convert acetylene into benzene?

When acetylene is passed through a copper tube at 300°C it polymerizes to benzene.

**14. What is resonance?**

The possibility of different pairing schemes of valence electrons of atom is called resonance and the structures thus arranged are called "Resonance Structures".

Example: The following different pairing schemes of the fourth valence the p-electrons of carbon are possible in benzene. This gives the following resonating structures of benzene.



- The stability of a molecule increases with increase in the number of its resonance structures. Benzene is chemically quite stable.
- The actual structure of benzene is a resonance hybrid of all five structures.

1. The following is a list of the names of the

2. The following is a list of the names of the

3. The following is a list of the names of the

4. The following is a list of the names of the

5. The following is a list of the names of the

6. The following is a list of the names of the

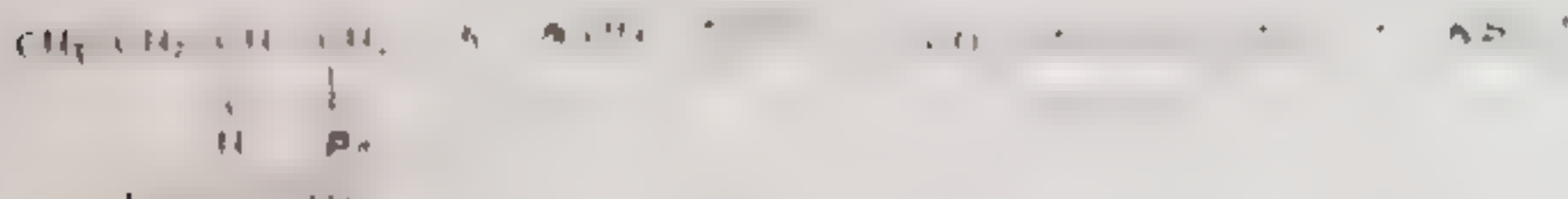
1. The following is a list of the names of the

2. (a) How many

(i) on alkyl halide

What is

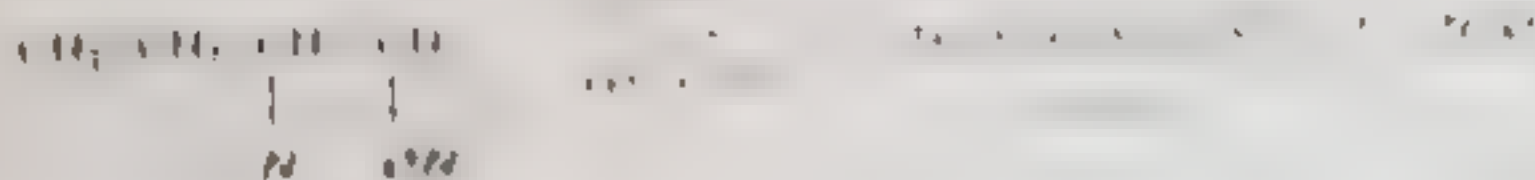
1. The following is a list of the names of the



(ii) Alkoxide

What is

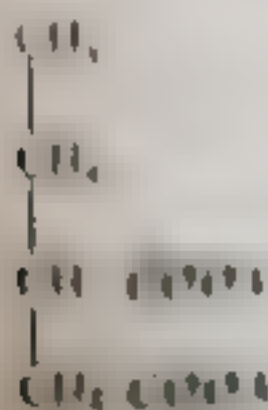
1. The following is a list of the names of the



(iii) Electrolyte of acid

What is

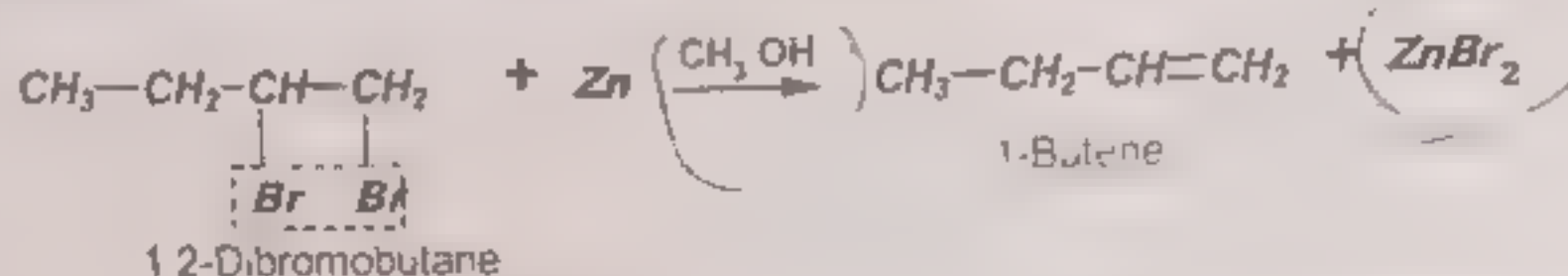
1. The following is a list of the names of the



(iv) vic-Dihalides

vicinal dihalides have two halogen atoms on adjacent carbon atoms.

1,2-dibromobutane is a vicinal dihalide. When it is treated with Zn in anhydrous solvent (e.g. ethanol) and acid, it gives 1-butene.



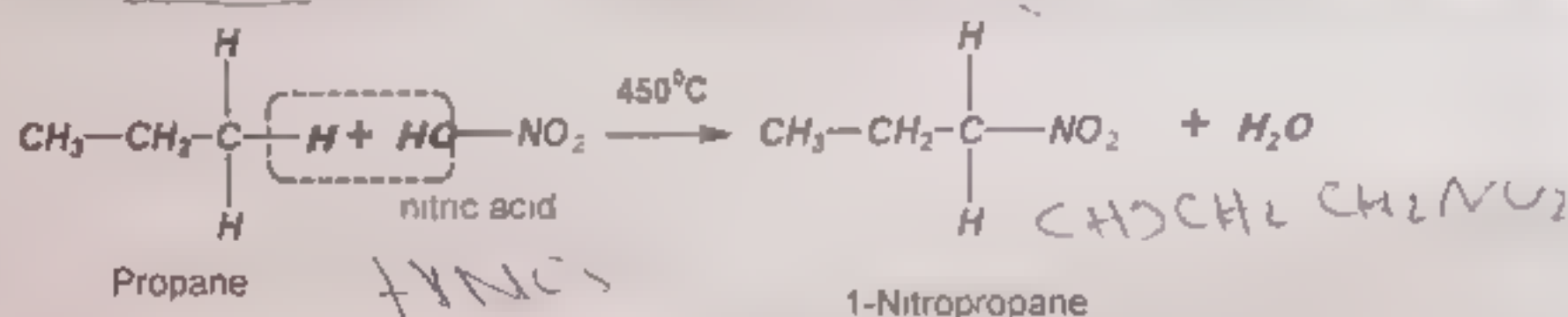
(b) What products are formed when n-propane undergo following reactions?

(i) Combustion

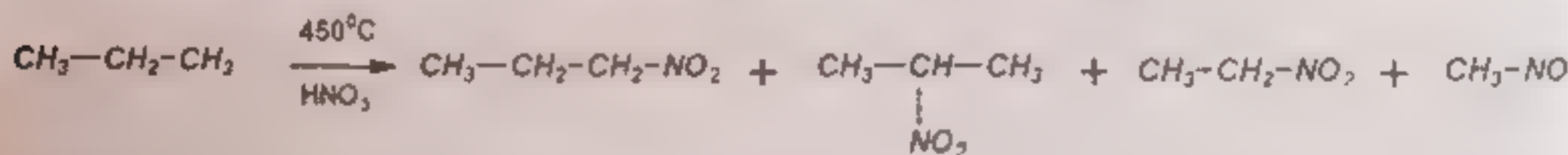


(ii) Nitration

n-Propane reacts with nitric acid in vapour-phase under drastic conditions (400-500°C) to give n-nitropropane.

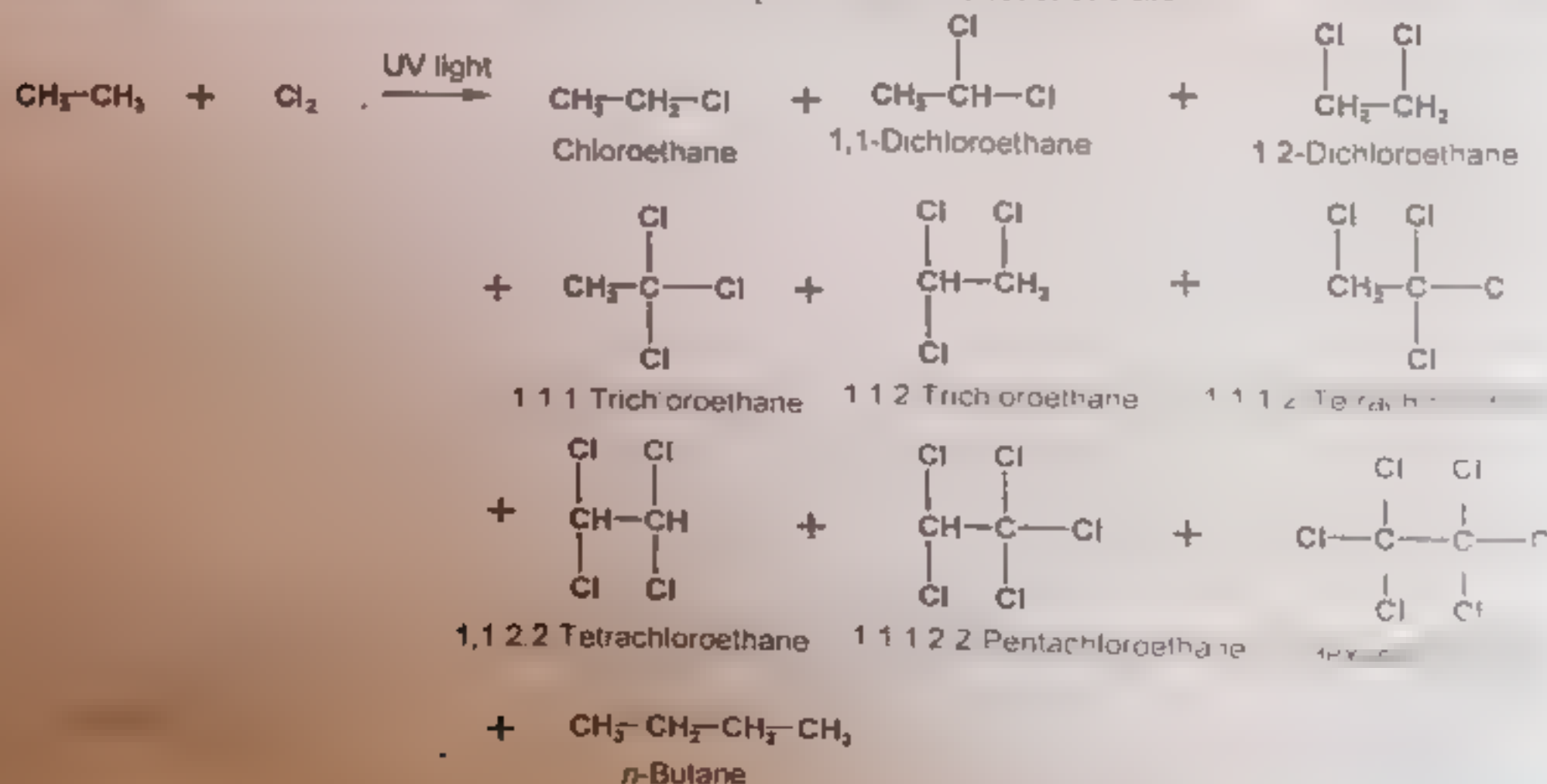


However, under drastic conditions, the molecule of n-propane is broken down and forms all possible nitroalkanes.



3. (a) When ethane reacts with Cl_2 in UV light the mixture of products is formed. Give the detail of reaction with mechanism and all types of products.

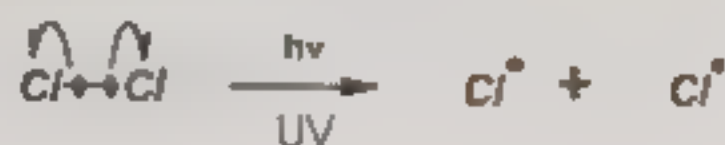
Ethane reacts with Cl_2 in UV light to give a mixture of products. The reaction occurs by free radical mechanism. This reaction is called radical substitution reaction. The products of the reactions are



Mechanism: Free Radical Substitution

Initiation step

Step - 1

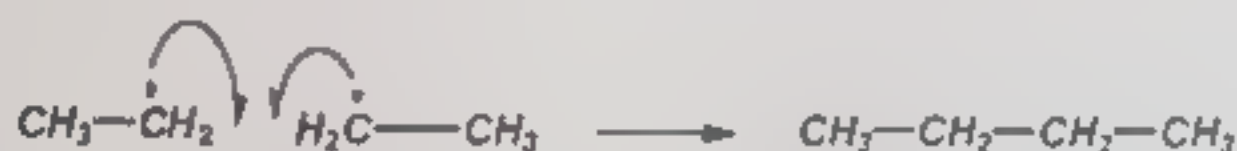


Propagation steps

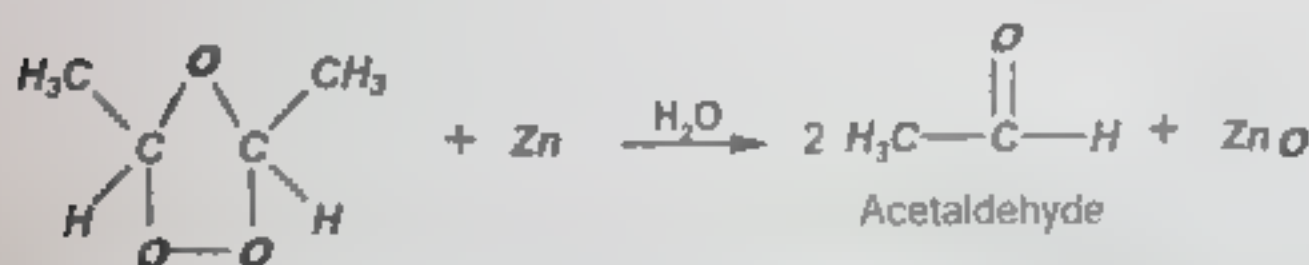
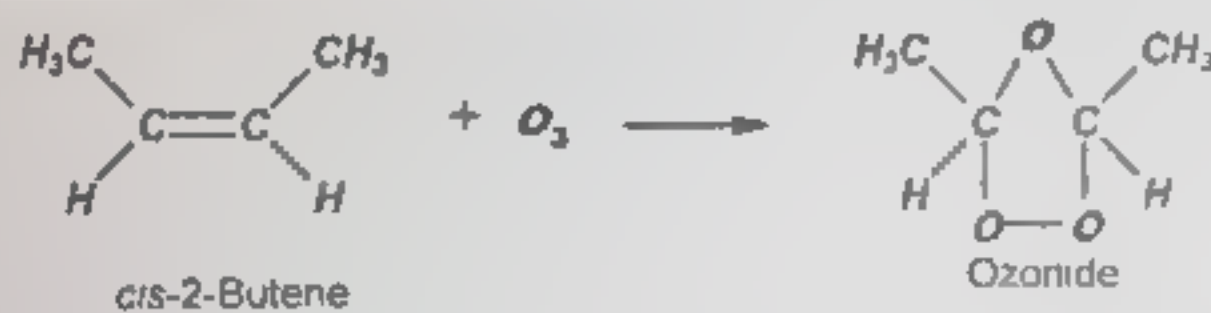
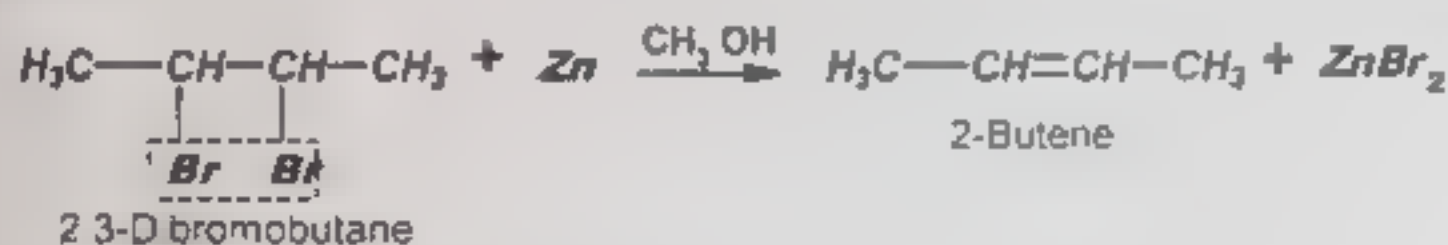


- These two steps are repeated over and over again. Thus all hydrogens of ethane are replaced by chlorine atoms. The hydrogen atoms are replaced one by one.

Termination step



- (b) A compound when treated with Zn in methanol, the alkene is formed. When alkene is ozonolysed the acetaldehyde is formed as the major product. Explain reactions, give name and structure of the compound.

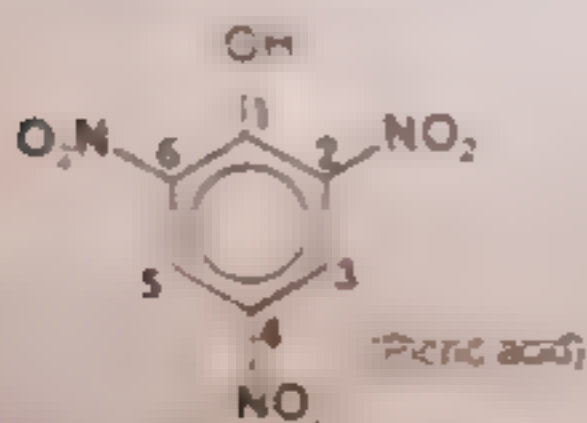


- 4 (a) How will you prove that benzene has cyclic structure?

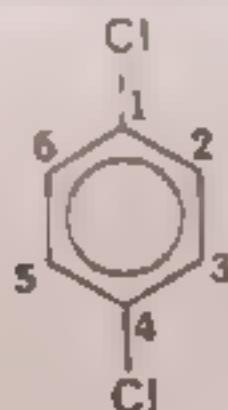
Solved on Page 200

1. Write the structural formula for the following benzene derivatives.
2. Write the structural formula for the following benzene derivatives.
3. Write the structural formula for the following benzene derivatives.
4. Write the structural formula for the following benzene derivatives.
5. Write the structural formula for the following benzene derivatives.
6. Write the structural formula for the following benzene derivatives.
7. Write the structural formula for the following benzene derivatives.

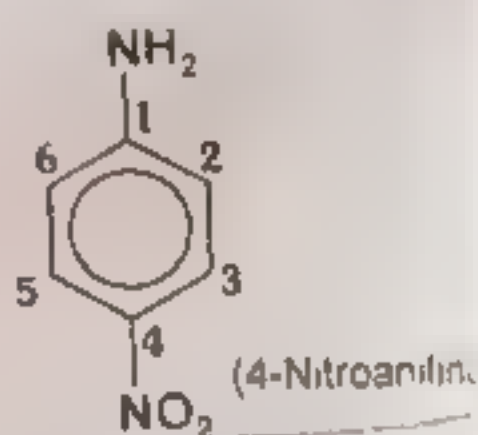
a) 2,4,6-Trinitrophenol



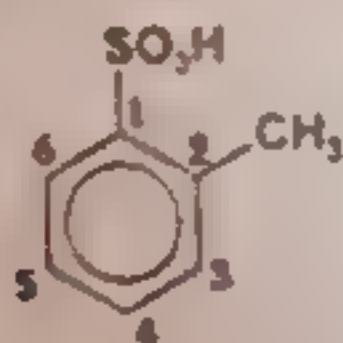
b) 1,4-Dichlorobenzene



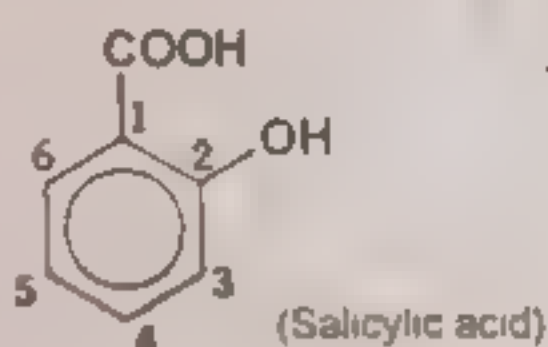
c) 4-Nitrophenylamine



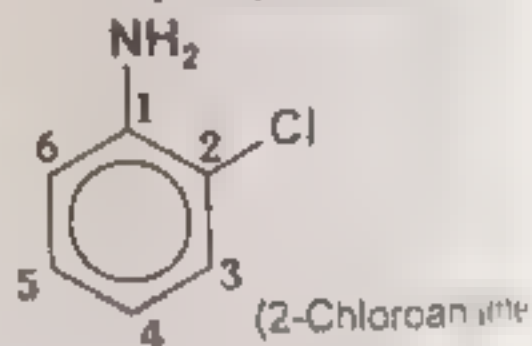
d) 2-Methylbenzenesulphonic acid



e) 2-Hydroxybenzoic acid

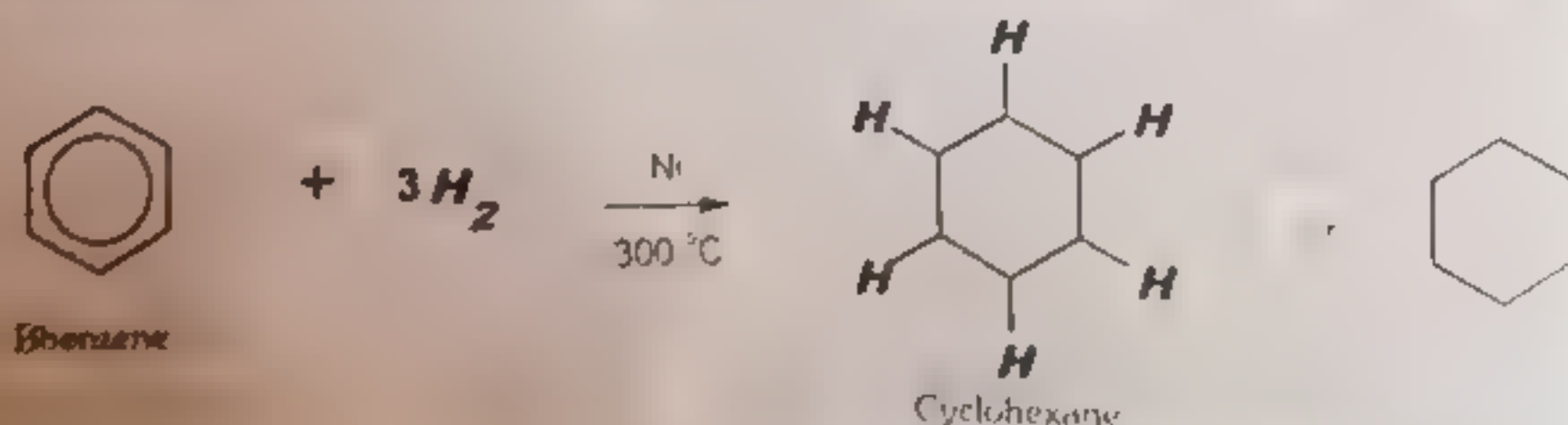


f) 2-Chlorophenylamine



8. Predict the major products of the following reactions.

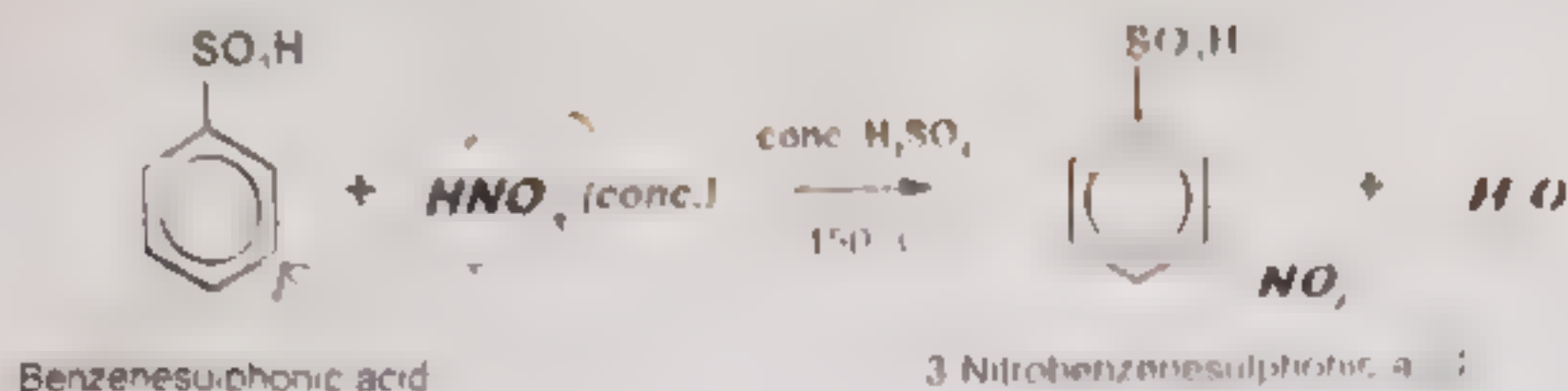
(a)



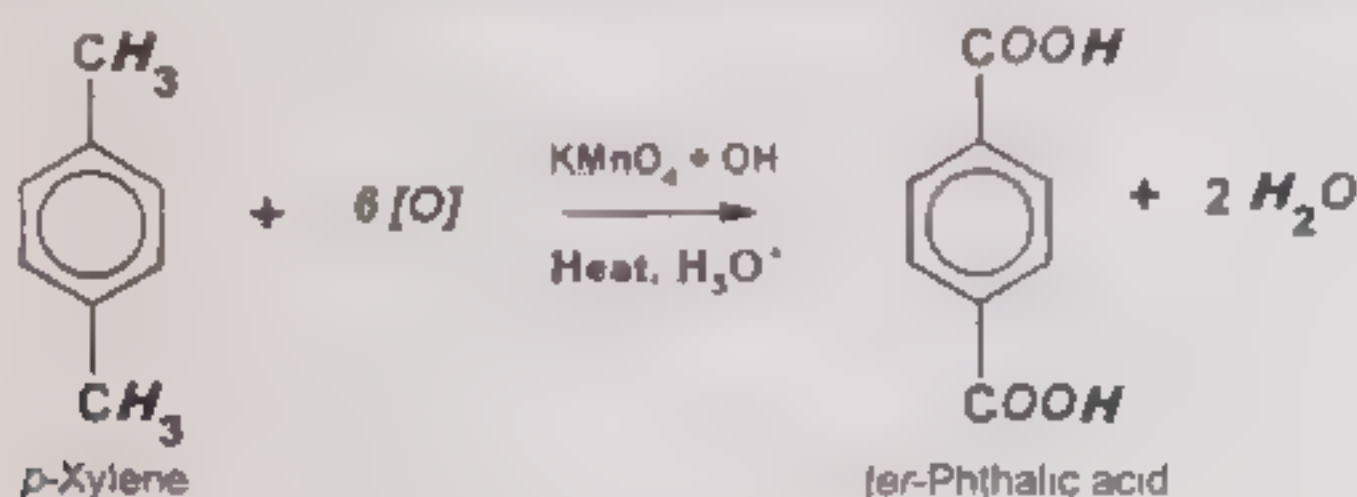
Chapter 16: Hydrocarbons

31

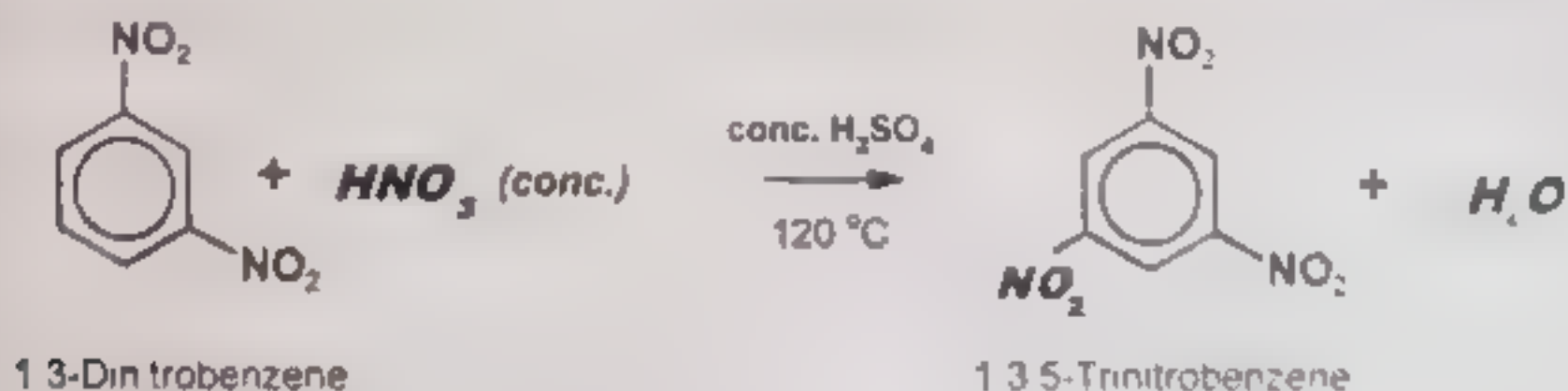
(b)



(c)



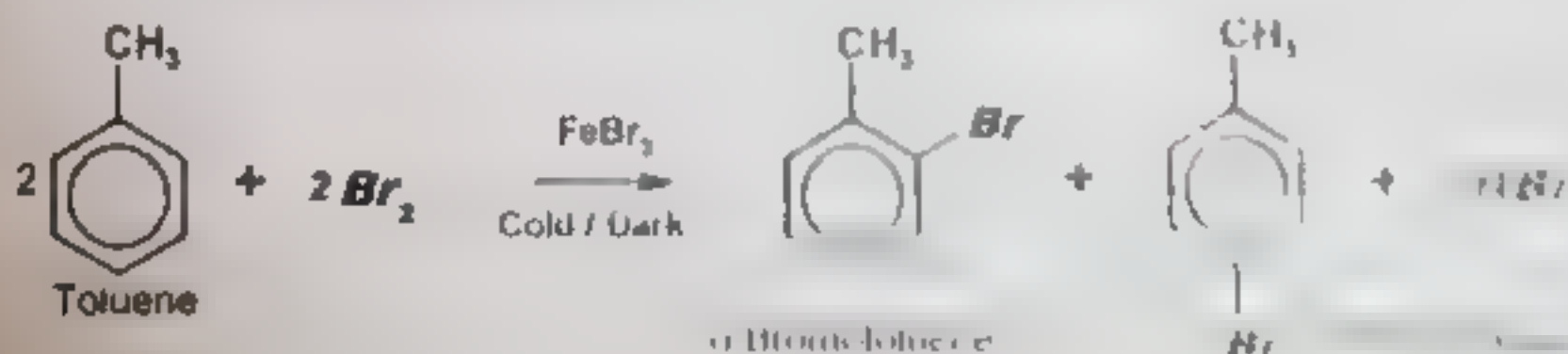
(d)



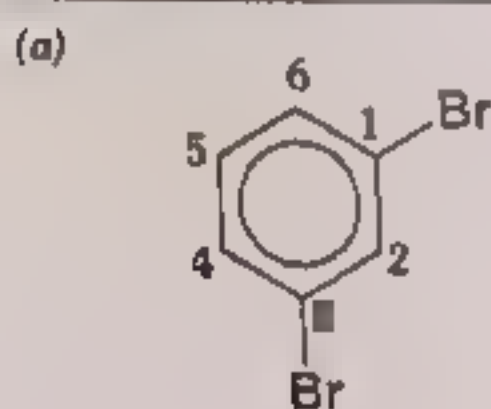
(e)



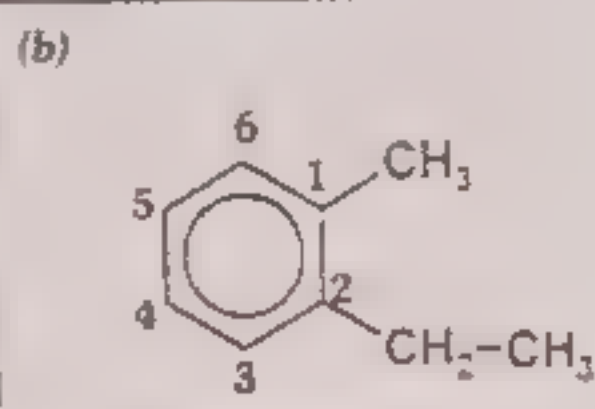
(f)



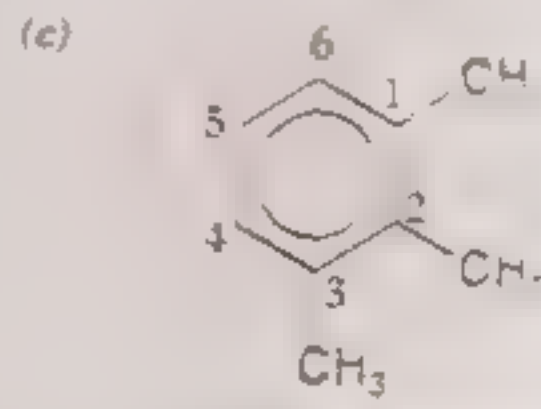
9 Name the following benzene derivatives



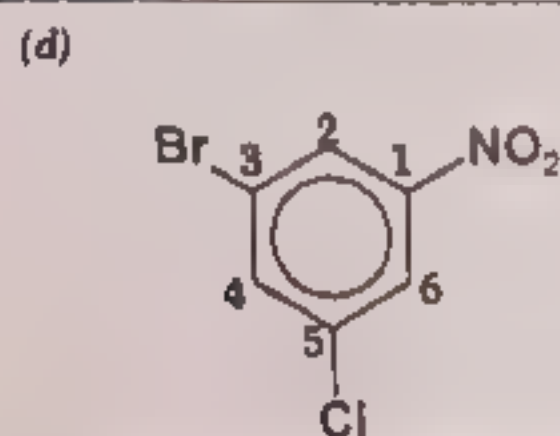
1,3-Dibromobenzene



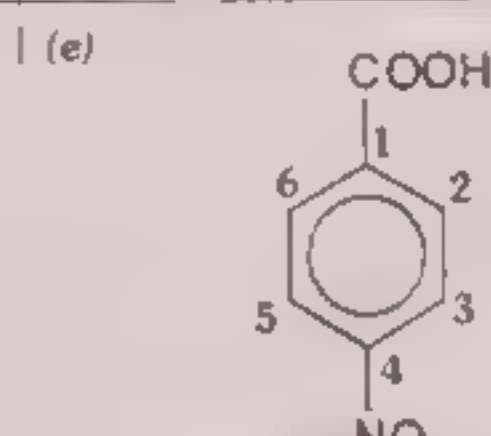
2-Ethyltoluene



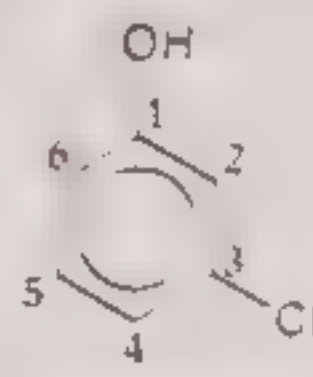
1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene



3-Bromo-5-chloronitrobenzene



4-Nitrobenzoic acid



3-Chlorophenol

Why Groups are ortho/para and meta-directors?

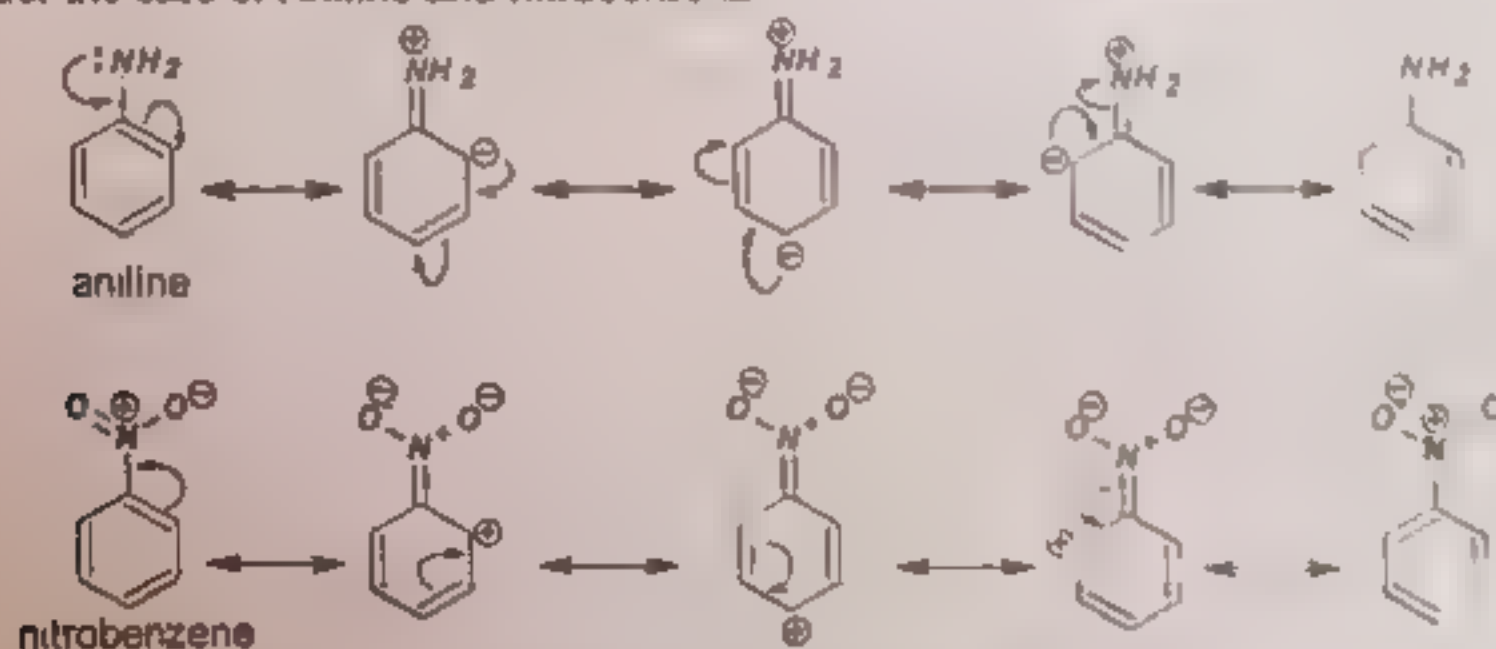
Resonance Effect:

The decrease in electron density at one position in a molecule, with corresponding increase in electron density at some other position is called Resonance Effect or Mesomeric Effect.

Examples

In delocalized chemical systems, electron density spread over various atoms.

e.g. consider the case of Aniline and nitrobenzene.



Thus, NH_2 donates electron to the ring while NO_2 group withdraws electrons from the ring.

Following things should be noted.

- In case of aniline, the negative charge comes at ortho/para positions. So, the electrophile will attack at these positions. So, NH_2 group is an ortho/para director. Moreover, since the electron density is increased on the ring, so it is an activating group.
- In case of nitrobenzene, the positive charge comes at ortho/para positions. So, the electrophile will not attack at these positions. Rather it will attack on meta-positions. So, NO_2 group is a meta-director. Moreover, since the electron density is decreased on the ring, so it is an deactivating group.
- Similarly others can also be explained.

PHYSICS

Time: 20 Minutes

Date: _____

Q1. Complete the following table:

(i) _____	A _____
(ii) _____	A _____

(iii) _____

A _____

(iv) _____

A _____

(v) _____

A _____

(vi) _____

A _____

(vii) _____

A _____

(viii) _____

A _____

(ix) _____

A _____

(x) _____

A _____

(xi) _____

A _____

(xii) _____

A _____

(xiii) _____

A _____

(xiv) _____

A _____

(xv) _____

A _____

(xvi) _____

A _____

Time: 2:35 Hours

Q2. Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answers are given.

(i) In alkene and other terminal _____

- Why 1-alkenes or 1-b _____
- Write a reaction to show the _____

(ii) Give mechanism of addition of _____

(iii) a) Define Markovnikov's _____
b) Complete the following reaction _____

(iv) Both alkenes and alkynes _____

- How will you differentiate _____
- Explain the addition _____
- How will you differentiate _____

Unit 16 Hydrocarbons

III

iv) How is 2-Butene prepared?

a. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_3$ b. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2$

v) Briefly explain the difference between

vi) How will you convert

a. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$ to $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_2\text{CH}_3$

vii) How will you convert ethene to ethyne?

a. Write the reaction sequence and reagents.

b. Write the balanced chemical equation.

viii) Complete the following reactions

a. propene $\xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$? $\xrightarrow{\text{H}_2}$?

b. propyne $\xrightarrow{\text{H}_2}$?

c. Ethene \rightarrow Ethene \rightarrow Ethyne

x) a. Why alkenes are called unsaturated hydrocarbons?

b. What are heat of hydrogenation?

xi) a. What is meant by secondary structure in alkenes?

b. Write the structural formula showing a cis-trans isomerism.

xii) a. What is the effect of branching on boiling point of alkenes?

b. How many ethene molecules are involved in the polymerization?

c. Alkenes usually undergo addition reactions while alkanes do not why?

xiii) How does Ethyne react with

a. AgNO_3 , NH_4OH b. KMnO_4 , H_2SO_4 , H_2O_2

xiv) a. Justify the given order of reactivity: $\text{Alkenes} > \text{alkynes}$

b. What is conjugation? [1]

(xv) a. Why alkenes are called paraffins?

b. Why alkenes are called olefins?

c. What is meant by dehydration of alcohols?

(xvi) a. How do you convert alkynes into cis and trans alkenes?

b. What is Baeyer's reagent and Baeyer's test?

(xvii) a. How will you distinguish between ethane and ethyne?

b. How mustard gas is prepared?

c. How will you distinguish between 1-butyne and 2-butyne by chemical test?

(xviii) a. What is meant by optical activity?

b. What is tautomerism? Give examples.

(xix) a. How aldehydes or ketones are produced from alkenes?

b. What is a polymerization reactions?

Section - C

Note Attempt any TWO questions All questions carry equal marks. (2 × 13 = 26)

Q. 3 a. How will you prepare 1-butene from?
b. An alkyl halide (ii) Alcohols

12. Benzene is not a geminal dihalide. IV, E2

13. D, A, C, E, B, F

14. D, A, C, E, B, F

15. D, A, C, E, B, F

16. D, A, C, E, B, F

17. D, A, C, E, B, F

18. D, A, C, E, B, F

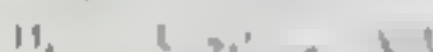
19. D, A, C, E, B, F

20. D, A, C, E, B, F

21. D, A, C, E, B, F

22. D, A, C, E, B, F

Consider the following sequence of the reactants:



1. Draw the

2. Draw the

TEST YOUR SKILLS

(AROMATIC COMPOUNDS)

OBJECTIVE

Time: 20 Minutes

Marks: 17

Note: Over writing, cutting, erasing, using lead pencil will result in loss of marks

Q1 Circle the correct option i.e. A/B/C/D Each part carries one mark

- (i) The conversion of n-hexane into benzene by heating in the presence of Pt is called
 A isomerism **B aromatization** C dealkylation D rearrangement
- (ii) Catalyst used for Friedel-Crafts reaction is
 A HNO_3 **B AlCl_3** C BeCl_2 D NaCl
- (iii) Benzoic acid formed by oxidation of
 A Toluene B Ethyl benzene C n-propyl benzene **D All**
- (iv) C-C bond length in benzene is
 A 1.34 Å B 1.20 Å **C 1.40 Å** D 1.54 Å
- (v) Aromatic compounds burn with sooty flame because
 A High percentage of hydrogen B Ring structure
C High percentage of carbon D They resist reaction with air
- (vi) Resonance structure of a molecule should have
 A Same number of paired electrons B Identical arrangement of atoms
 C Nearly same energy content **D All of these**
- (vii) In which one of the following compounds the benzene rings are isolated
 A Naphthalene B Anthracene C Phenanthrene **D Diphenyl methane**
- (viii) Benzene can not undergo
A Elimination B Substitution C Oxidation D Addition
- (ix) Nitrating agent in nitration of benzene is
 A HNO_3 **B NO_2^+** C NO_3^- D HNO_2
- (x) Benzene on catalytic oxidation at 500°C with V_2O_5 gives
 A Benzoic acid **B Maleic anhydride** C Maleic acid D Fumaric acid
- (xi) Amongst following, strongest o/p directing group
 A -Cl **B -OH** C -NH₂ D -NO₂
- (xii) The effect of substituent Cl in electrophilic substitution is
A o,p-director and deactivating B o,p-director and activating
 C m-director and activating D m-director and deactivating
- (xiii) The aromatic ring can be hydrogenated by using the catalyst
A Pt B Pd C Rh D Ni
- (xiv) Which xylene gives only one monobromo derivative
A Para B Meta C Ortho D Methyl
- (xv) Benzene is prepared from cyclohexane by the process called
 A Hydrogenation B Dehydration **C Dehydrogenation** D Nitration
- (xvi) In which one of the following compounds the benzene ring is not present
 A Toluene **B Nitrobenzene** C Benzene D Phenol
- (xvii) Shape of benzene molecule is
 A Pyramidal B Linear Plane C Triangular **D hexagonal Planar**

SUBJECTIVE

Time: 2.35 Hours

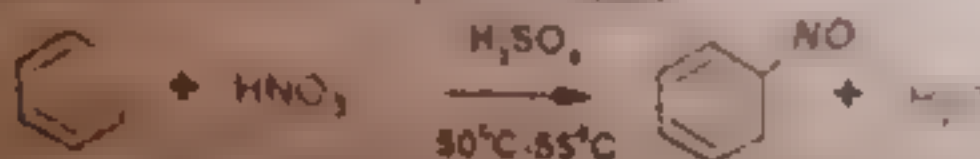
Total Marks Section B and C: 42

Section - B (Marks 42) (14 × 3 = 42)

Q2 Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not exceed 100 words.

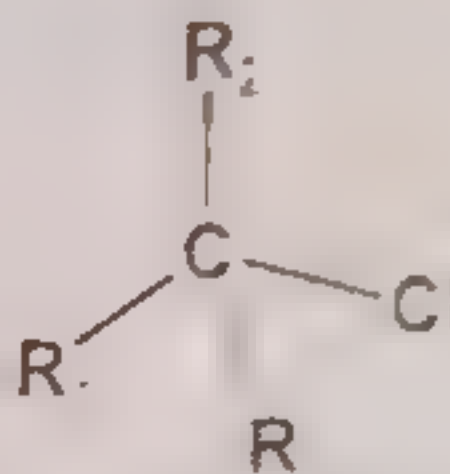
- (i) The carbon-carbon bond length in Benzene is different from
 a. Which compound contains the longer bond
 b. Give reason for your answer
- (ii) Aromatic compounds undergo Electrophilic Substitution
 a. Explain why Nitration of Toluene is easier than that of Benzene
 b. How would you convert Toluene into Toluene-2-nitrobenzene

iii) Nitration of benzene takes place as follows:



- a. Which is the oxidizing agent and how it is justified
 b. Write complete mechanism for the above conversion

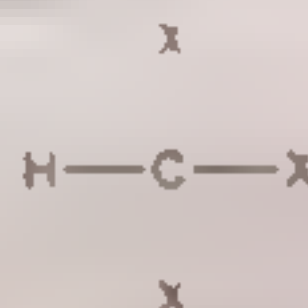
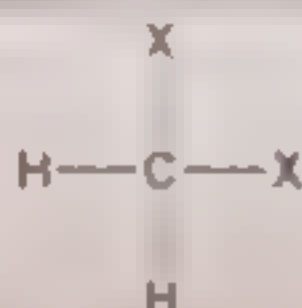
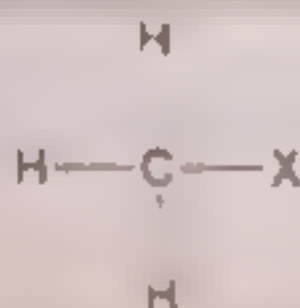
CHAPTER # 17

ALKYL HALIDES
AND AMINES**ALKYL HALIDE****INTRODUCTION**

Alkyl halides are the compounds in which one hydrogen atom of Alkanes has been replaced by a halogen atom. They are also known as halogen derivatives.

TYPES

Primary Alkyl Halide
molecule Me

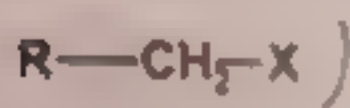
**CLASSIFICATION OF ALKYL HALIDES**

Alkyl halides are classified into primary, secondary, and tertiary.

(I) Primary Alkyl Halides

Alkyl halide in which halogen atom is attached with primary carbon is called primary alkyl halide.

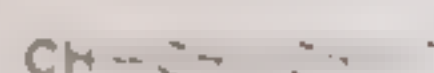
A primary C-atom is attached to one or no carbon atom is called a primary C-atom.



Methyl chloride

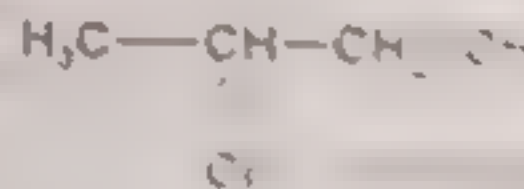
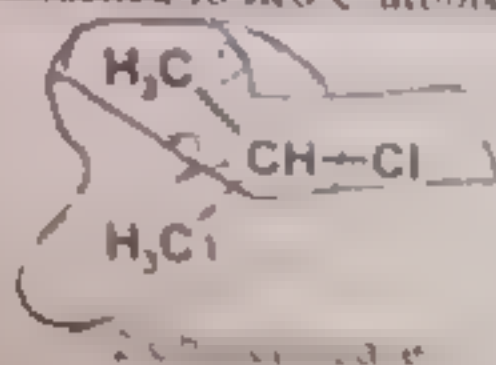
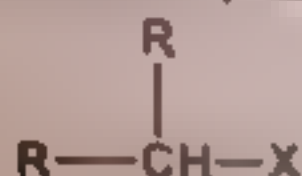


Ethyl chloride

**(II) Secondary Alkyl Halides**

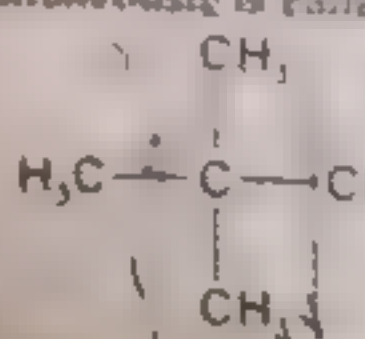
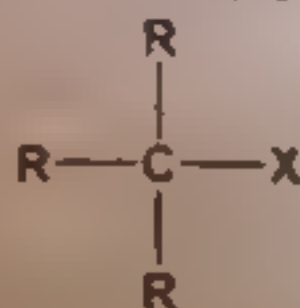
Alkyl halide in which halogen atom is attached with a secondary carbon is called secondary alkyl halide.

A Secondary C-atom is attached to two C-atoms simultaneously is called a secondary C-atom.

**(III) Tertiary Alkyl Halides**

Alkyl halides, in which halogen atom is attached to a tertiary carbon is called tertiary alkyl halide.

A tertiary C-atom is attached to three C-atoms simultaneously is called a tertiary C-atom.



2-chloro-2-methylpropane

NOMENCLATURE

Common System of Naming

-
-
-

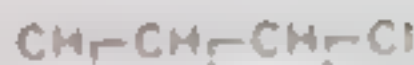
Examples



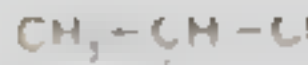
Methyl chloride



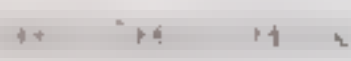
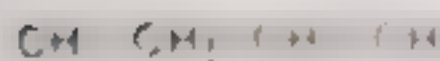
Ethyl chloride



Propyl chloride



Isobutyl chloride



CH₃

CH₃

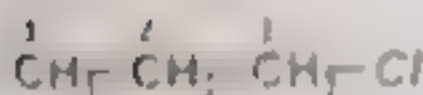
CH₃

II IUPAC System of naming

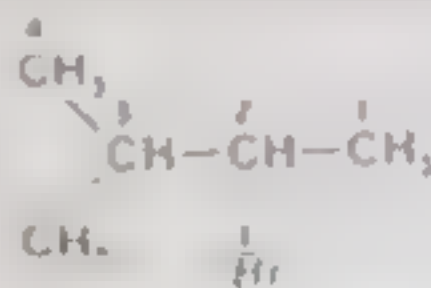
1) Prefix

2) Root

3) Suffix

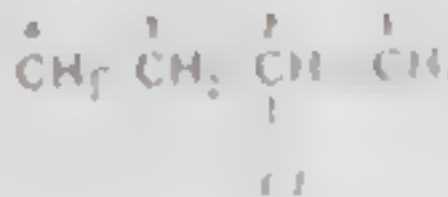


propyl

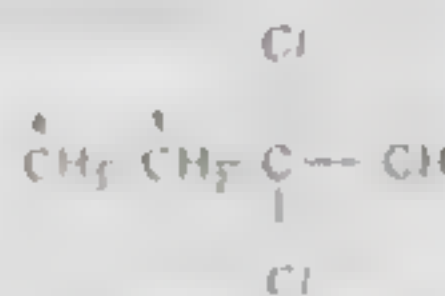


CH₃

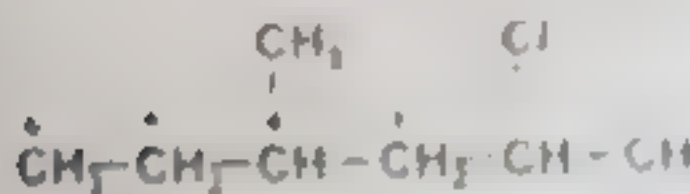
CH₃



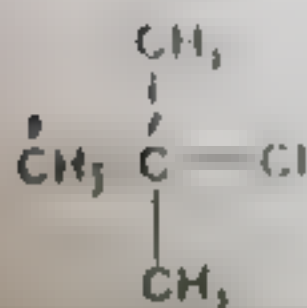
Cl



Cl



H

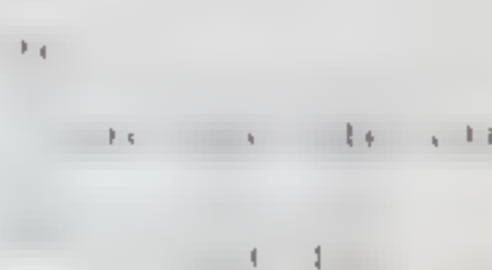


2-Chloro-2-methylpropene



CH₃

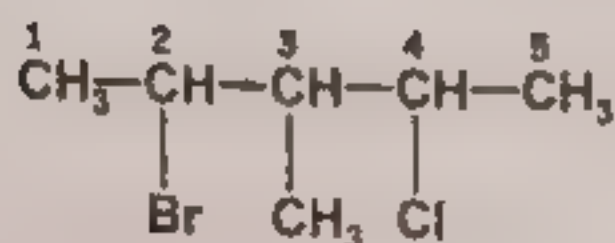
Cl



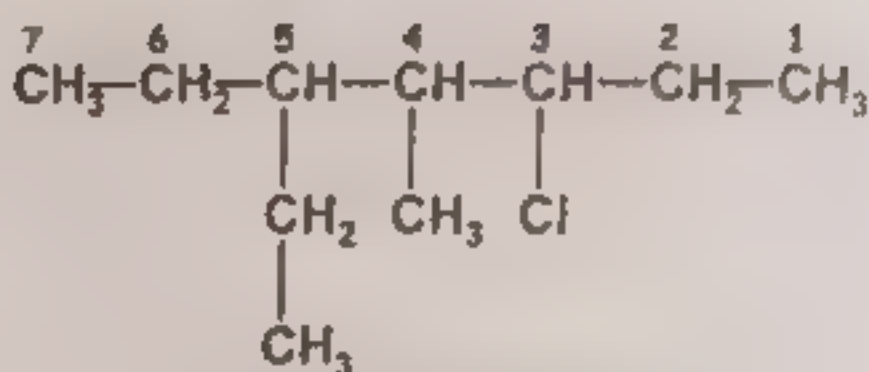
H

Cl

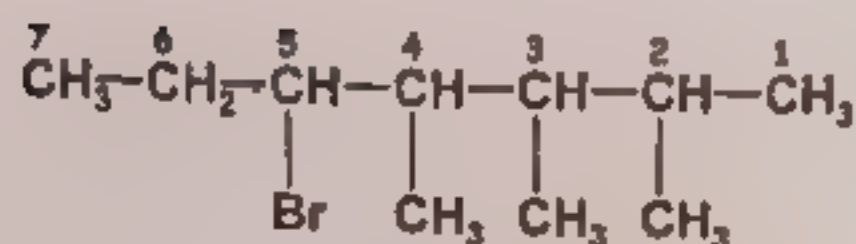
MORE PRACTICE



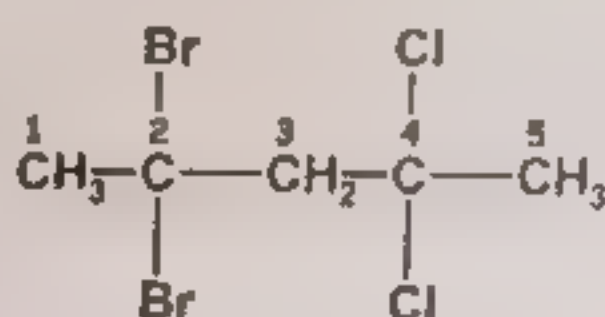
2-Bromo-4-chloro-3-methylpentane



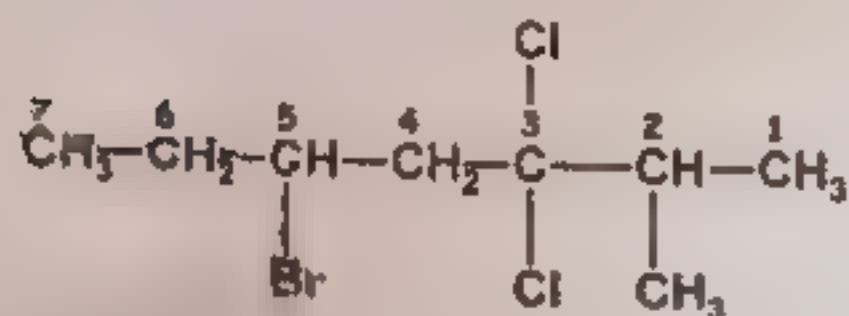
3-Chloro-5-ethyl-4-methylheptane



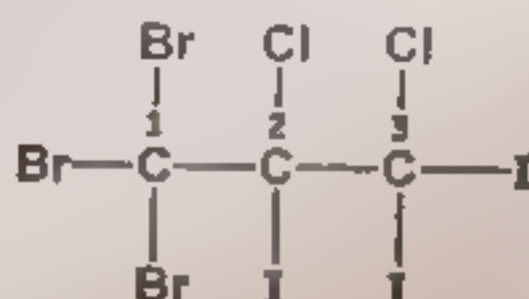
5-Bromo-2,3,4-trimethylheptane



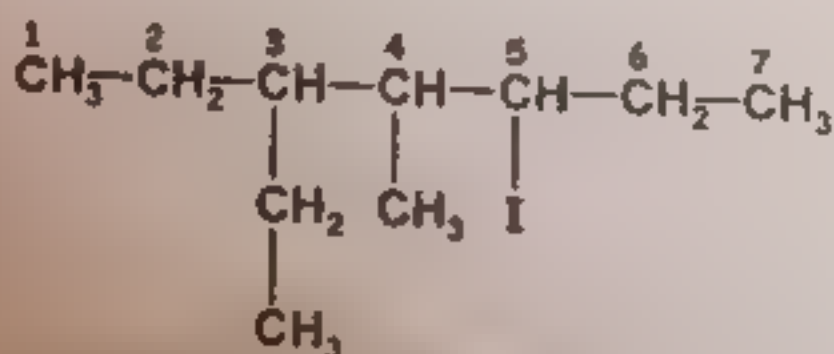
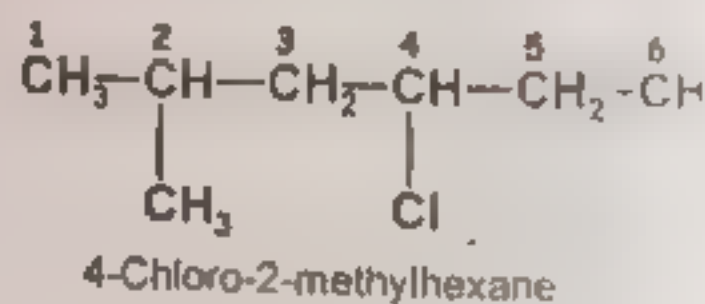
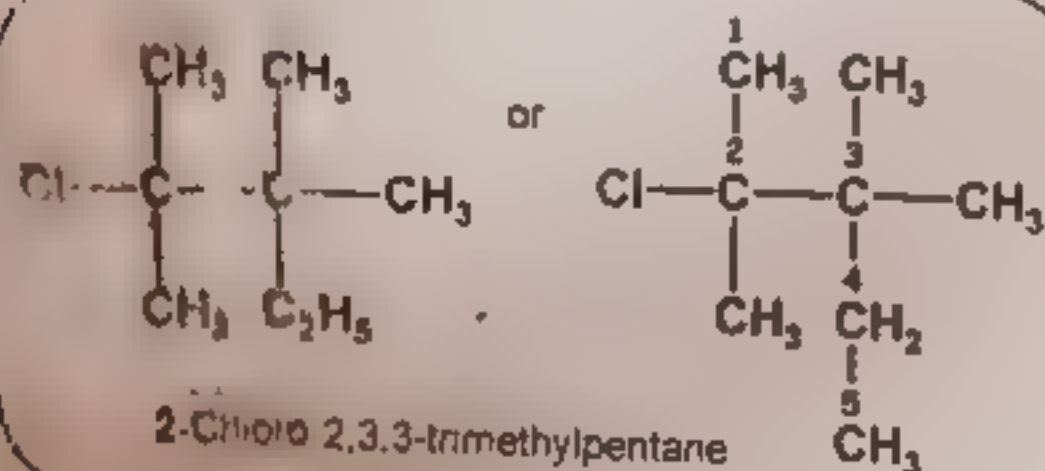
2,2-Dibromo-4,4-dichloropentane



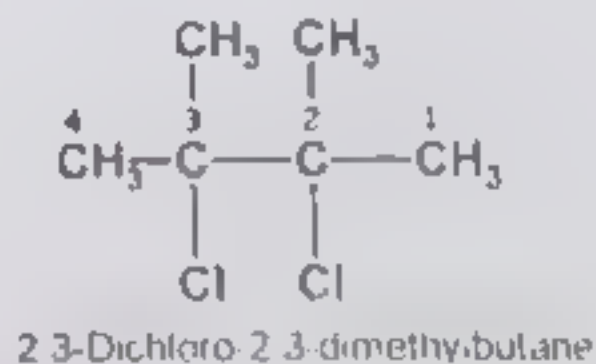
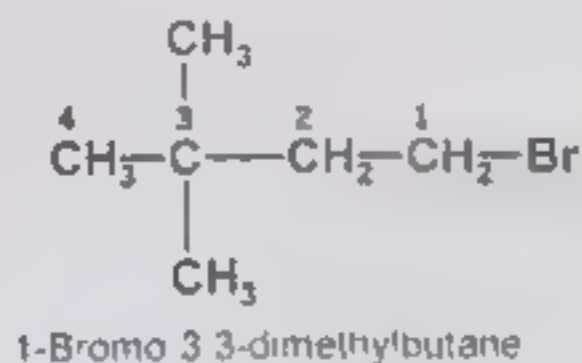
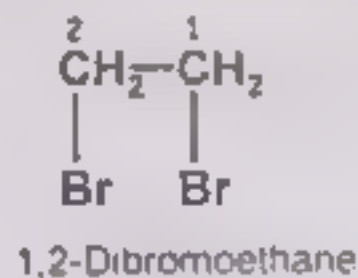
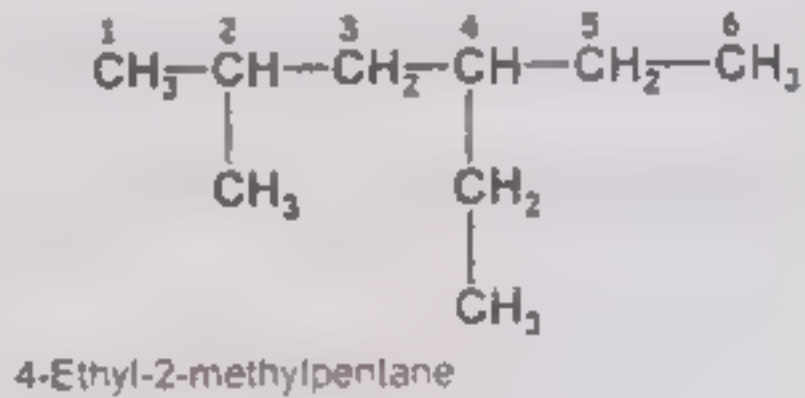
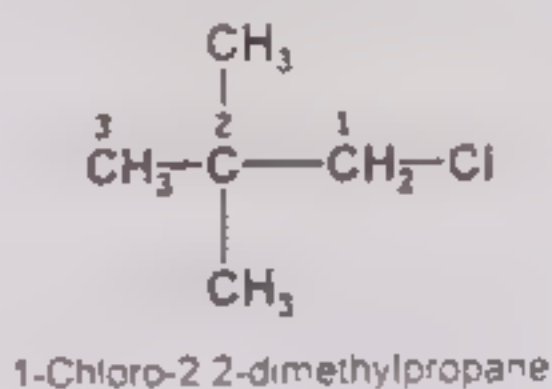
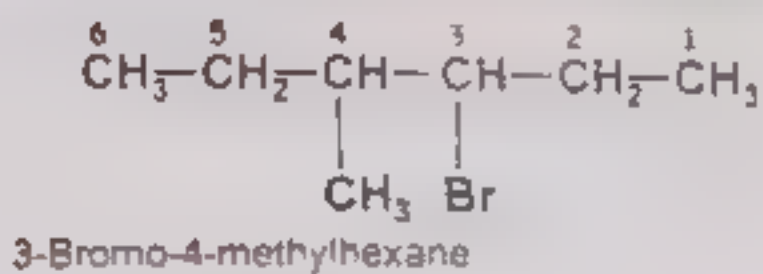
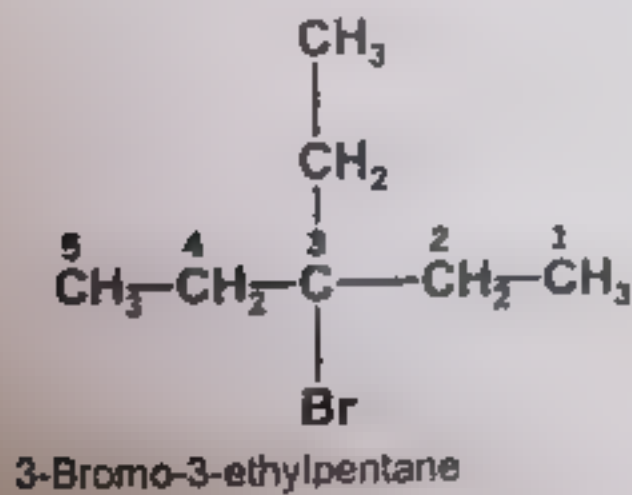
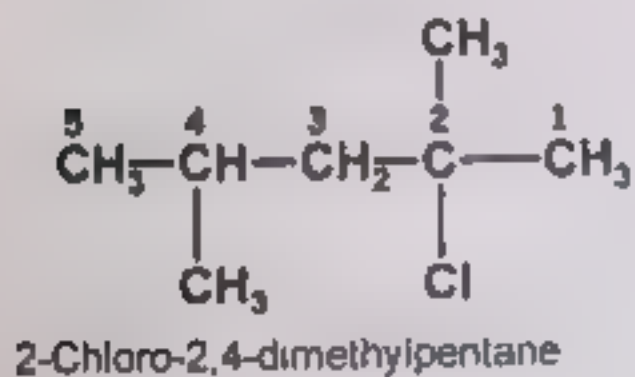
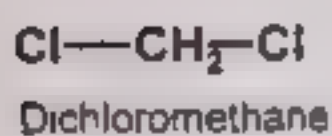
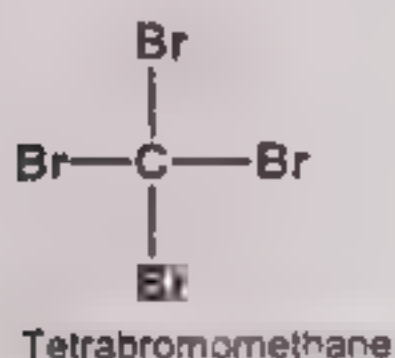
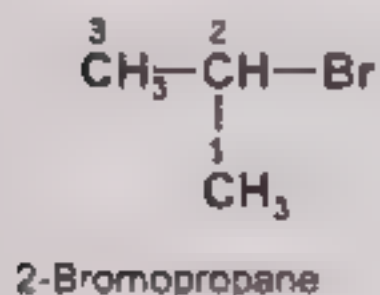
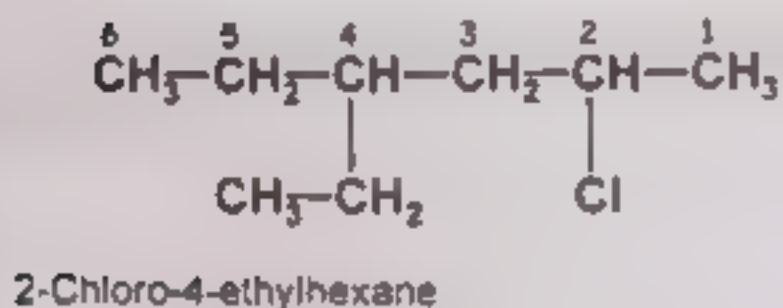
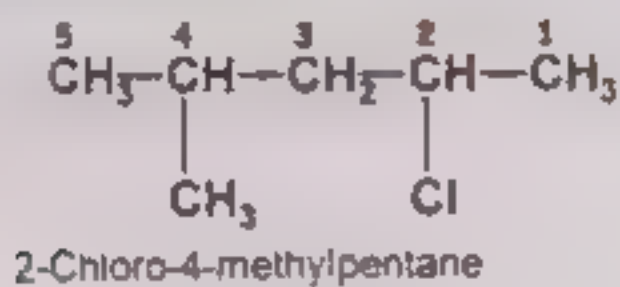
1,1,3,3,5-pentachloro-2-methylheptane



1,1,1-Tribromo-2,3-dichloro-2,3,3-triodopropane



3-Ethyl-5-iodo-4-methylheptane



PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

The alkyl halides contain a polar bond. Thus, it has higher melting points and boiling points.

STRUCTURE

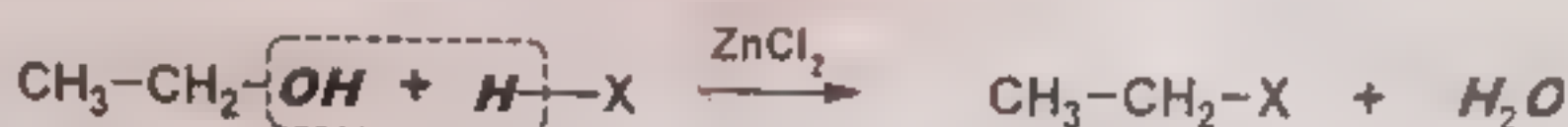
- The alkyl halide functional group consists of an sp^3 -hybridized C atom bonded to a halogen atom by a σ bond.
- The carbon halogen bonds are polar due to the electronegativity and polarizability of the halogen.

PREPARATIONS OF ALKYL HALIDES

Exercise Q3 (II) Give three methods for the preparation of alkyl halides.

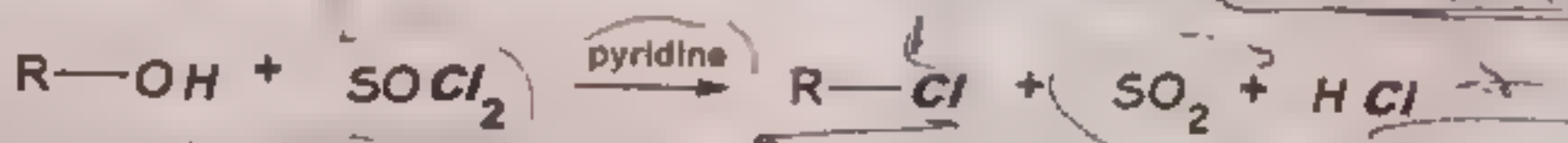
(1) Reaction of Alcohols with Hydrogen Halides

Alcohols may be converted to the corresponding alkyl halides by the action of hydrogen halides in the presence of $ZnCl_2$ as a catalyst.

**(2) Reaction of Alcohols with other Halogenating agents ($SOCl_2$, PX_3)**

(a) Alcohols react with thionyl chloride in pyridine as a solvent to give alkyl chlorides.

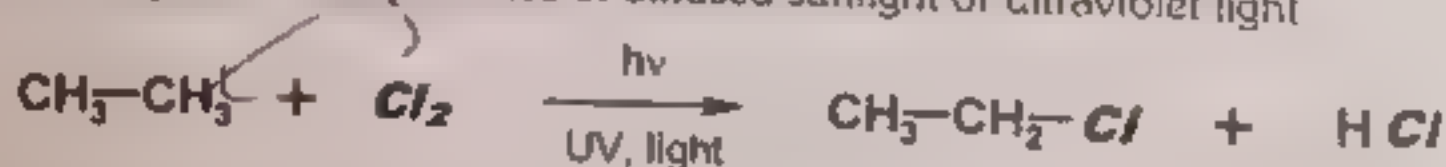
This is the best method because HCl and SO_2 are gases which escape out leaving behind the pure product.



(b) Phosphorous trihalides or phosphorous pentahalides react with alcohols to form alkyl halides.

**(3) Halogenation of Alkanes**

- Alkanes react with chlorine or bromine to give alkyl halides.
- This reaction takes place in the presence of diffused sunlight or ultraviolet light.

**NOTE:**

- This method does not give pure alkyl halides. Halogen derivatives containing two or more halogen atoms are also formed along with alkyl halides.

The detail mechanism of this reaction has already been discussed in Chapter # 16 (Radical Substitution).

REACTIVITY

Exercise Q3 (I) Discuss the reactivity of alkyl halides.

There are two main factors which control the reactivity of alkyl halides.

- (1) Bond polarity of C-X bond
- (2) Bond energy of C-X bond

I. Bond Polarity

- The molecule of alkyl halide is polarized due to the greater electronegativity of halogen.

Atom	Electronegativity	Atom	Electronegativity
F	4.0	I	2.5
Cl	3.0	H	2.1
Br	2.8	C	2.5

- Hence carbon acquires partial positive charge whereas halogen acquires partial negative charge. $\text{R}-\overset{\delta+}{\text{C}}-\overset{\delta-}{\text{X}}$
- Halogen becomes nucleophilic in character.
- The polarity order is $\text{R-F} > \text{R-Cl} > \text{R-Br} > \text{R-I}$

2. Bond Energy

- Experiments have shown that the bond energy of C-X bond is the factor which decides the reactivity of alkyl halides, and not the polarity of the molecule.
- A study of bond energies of C-X bond shows that C-F bond is the strongest. So the overall order of reactivity of alkyl halides is:

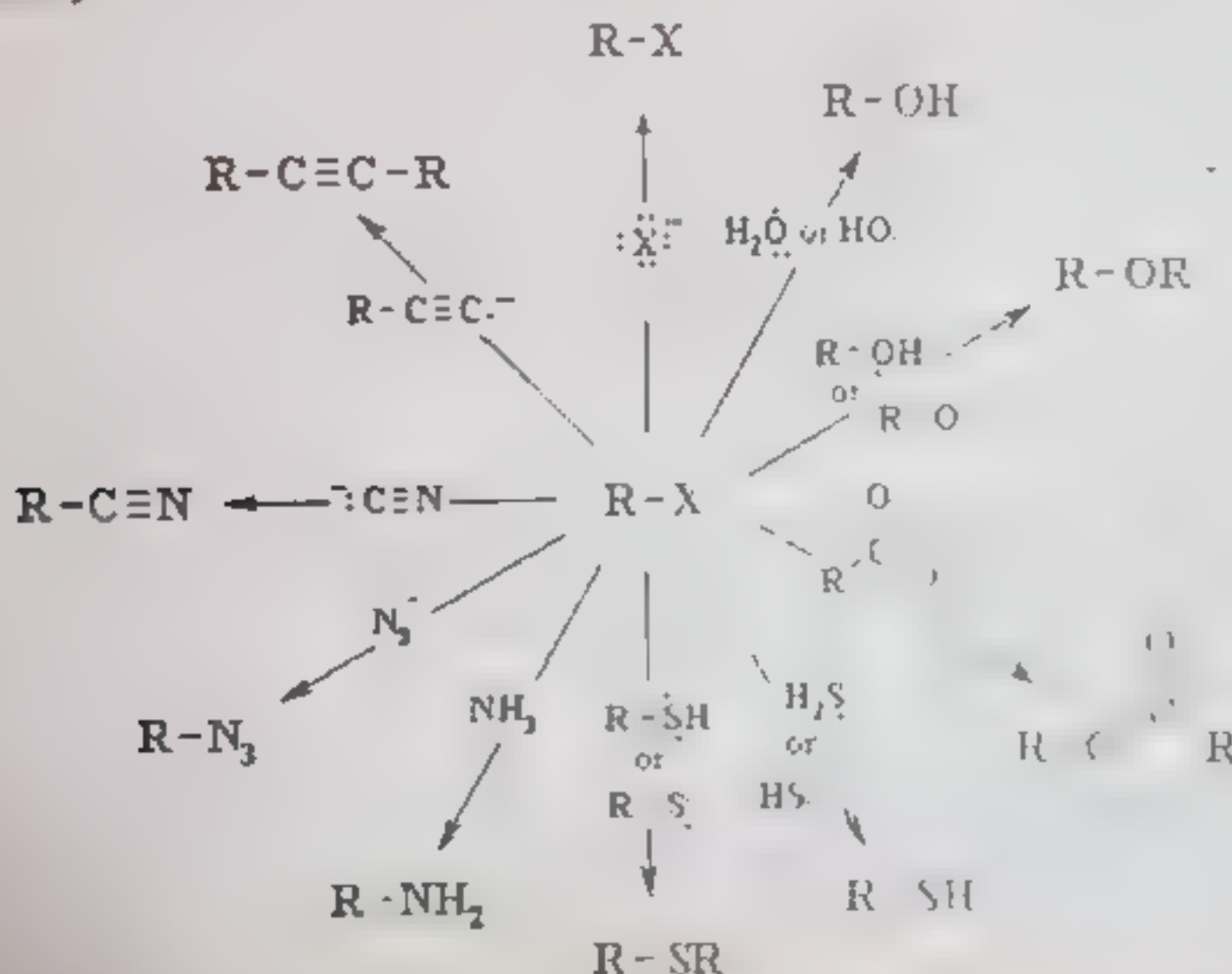
$\text{R-iodide} > \text{R-bromide} > \text{R-chloride} > \text{R-fluoride}$

- In fact the C-F bond is so strong that alkyl fluorides do not react with nucleophiles.

NUCLEOPHILIC SUBSTITUTION REACTIONS OF ALKYL HALIDES

- Alkyl chlorides, bromides and iodides are good substrates for substitution reactions.
- A variety of nucleophiles can be used to generate a range of new functional groups.
- The following diagram reflects some of the more important reactions you may encounter.
- For practice, make sure you can draw the mechanisms that lead to these products.

Reactions Summary



IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS**Electrophile**

Species in search of negative charge is called an electrophile

Examples**Nucleophile**

Species in search of positive charge is called a nucleophile

OR A nucleophile is electron rich species that will react with an electron poor species. It has a lone pair of electrons available for bonding or has negative charge

Examples

HO^-	Hydroxide ion	NH_2^-	Amino group
$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{O}^-$	Ethoxide ion	Cl^-	Chloride ion
HS^-	Hydrogen Sulphide ion	Br^-	Bromide ion
SCN^-	Thiocyanate ion	NH_3	Ammonia
H_2O	Water		

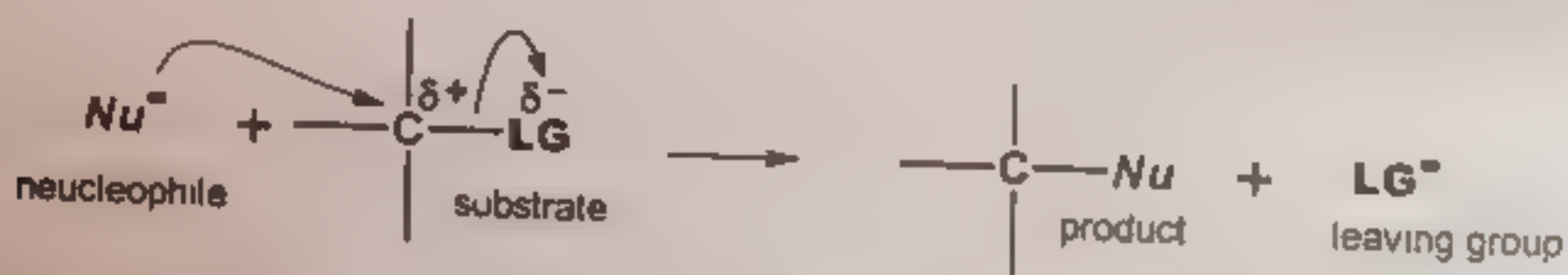
Substitution Reaction

A substitution is the reaction in which one group replaces another.

NUCLEOPHILIC SUBSTITUTION REACTION

The reaction in which a nucleophile replaces another atom or a group of atom already present in a molecule are called nucleophilic substitution reactions.

In these reactions, an electron rich species, the **nucleophile**, reacts at an electrophilic C atom attached to an electronegative group, the **leaving group**, which is replaced.



- The electrophilic C is present in the polar sigma bond due to the presence of an electronegative substituent (e.g., C-Cl, C-Br, C-I and C-O)
- Nucleophilic substitution reactions allow the interconversion of functional groups

TYPES OF NUCLEOPHILIC SUBSTITUTION REACTION

There are two fundamental events in a nucleophilic substitution reaction

- formation of the new σ -bond to the nucleophile
- breaking of the σ -bond to the leaving group

Depending on the relative timing of these events, two different mechanisms are possible

- First old bond breaks and then new bond is formed **$\text{S}_\text{N}1$ reaction**
- Simultaneous bond formation and bond breaking **$\text{S}_\text{N}2$ reaction**

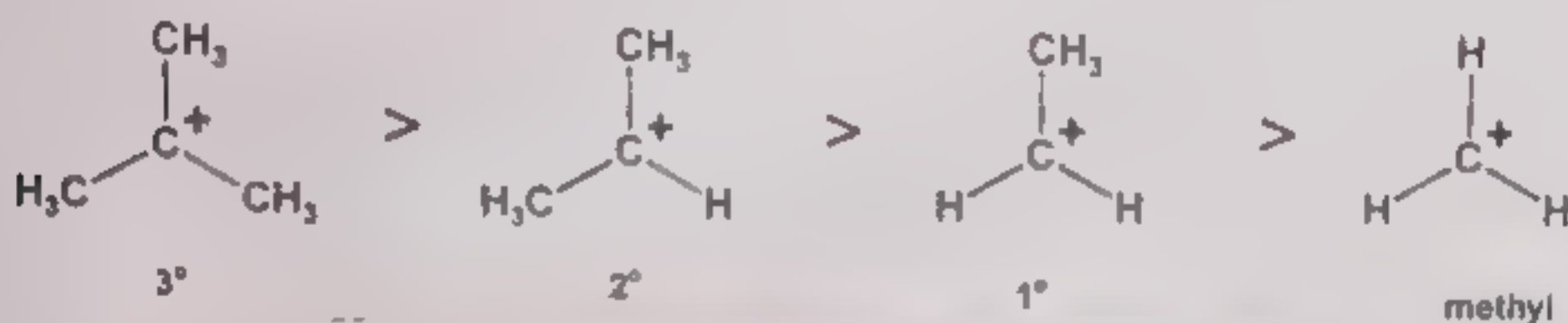
CARBOCATIONS AND THEIR STABILITY

The ion with trivalent carbon and have positive charge on carbon atom is called a carbocation

Stability: (3) (3)

Why it is 3

- The general stability order of simple alkyl carbocations is (most stable) $3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ > \text{methyl}$ (least stable)



- This is because alkyl groups are weakly electron donating due to hyperconjugation and inductive effects. So, due to electron donating effect, they stabilize the positive charge on carbon atom.
- Since, tertiary carbocation has more alkyl groups attached to the positive carbon atom, so, it will be more stabilized than secondary carbocation and so on.
- Resonance effects can further stabilize carbocations when present. For Resonance Effect see page 215.

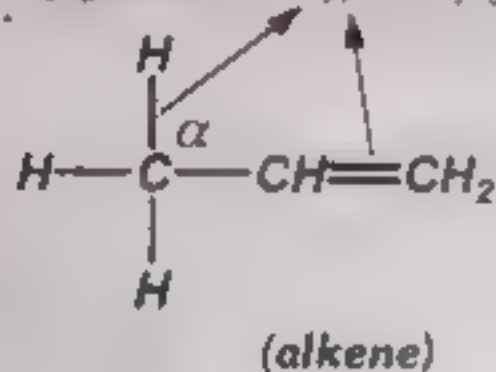
SOME EXPLANATIONS

Hyperconjugation

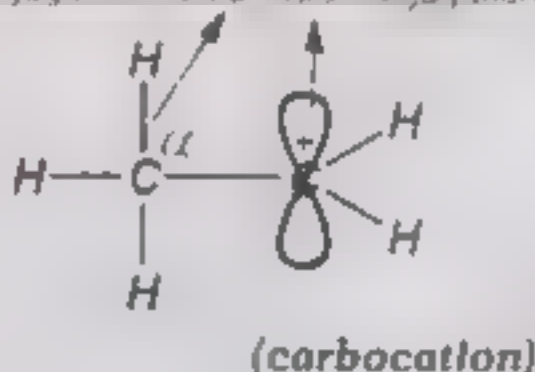
The conjugation of σ - electrons of a C - H bond with p - electrons of the unsaturated system or with p - orbital is called hyperconjugation.

Examples:

C-H bond and Double bond are in conjugation called hyperconjugation



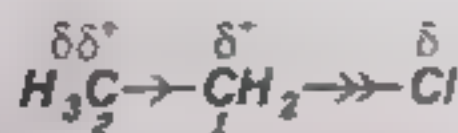
In carbocation, C-H bond and p-orbital on carbon with positive charge are in conjugation called hyperconjugation



Inductive Effect

The polarization of a bond induced by an adjacent polar bond is known as the Inductive Effect

Example



In ethyl chloride, the more electronegative chlorine atom pulls shared electron towards it, so C-1 gets δ^- charge and C-2 gets δ^+ charge. The C-1 in turn pulls electrons from C-2. Thus C-2 also gets slight δ^+ charge. However, charge on C-2 is less than C-1 because pull decreases along the chain.

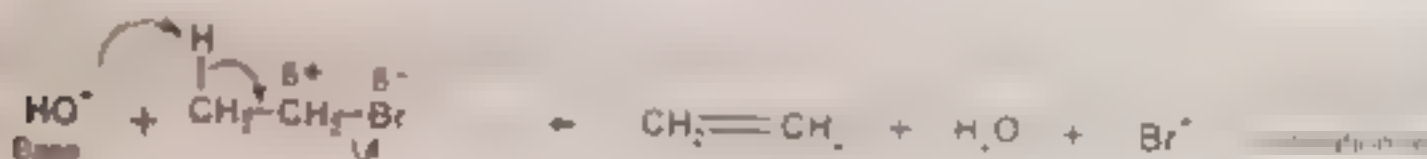
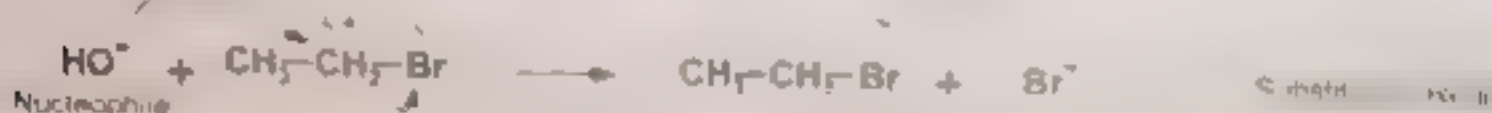
REACTIONS INVOLVING CARBOCATIONS

NUCLEOPHILES AND BASE

It is species rich in electron and has an unshared pair of electrons available for bonding

Examples

Carbon is a species rich in electrons as it is an electronegative element and is a nucleophile
Hydrogen atom then it is a weak base.



SUBSTRATE AND LEAVING GROUP

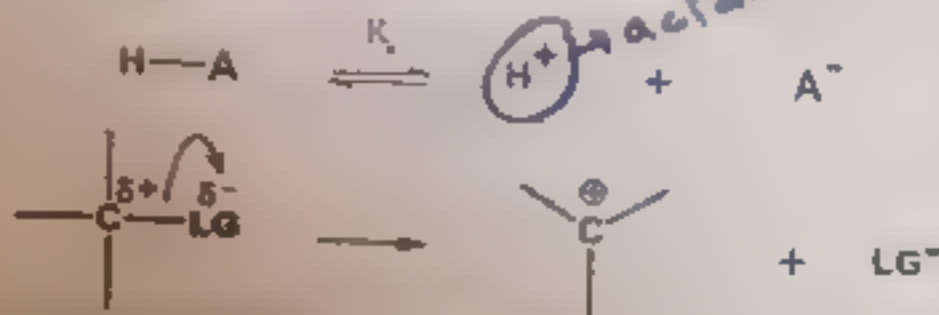
SUBSTRATE MOLECULE

The alkyl halide molecule on which a nucleophile attacks is called a substrate molecule

LEAVING GROUP (LG)

Leaving group is also a nucleophile. It leaves with an unshared pair of electrons

- The incoming nucleophile is OH^-
- Good Leaving Groups are I^- , Br^- , OTf
- Poor leaving groups are OH^- , OR^- , NH_2^-
- Iodide ion is a good nucleophile and a good leaving group



Both these processes are similar as both involve ionization

- The first reaction represents the Bronsted acid dissociation.
- The second reaction represents the loss of a leaving group in an $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ type reaction.

III

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

Very Imp

Ex 1

Q1



Alkyl phenylcarbamate or Aryl tosylate or POs

Exercise Q3 (iii). Explain in detail S_N1 and S_N2 reactions with

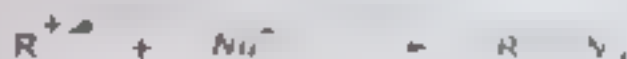
S_N1 MECHANISM

It is substitution nucleophilic unimolecular reaction.

EXPLANATION

Step-I The first step is

Step-II Then the carbocation



- Since only one molecule is involved in the rate-determining step, it is a unimolecular reaction.

EVIDENCES OF S_N1 MECHANISM

1. Kinetic Evidence.

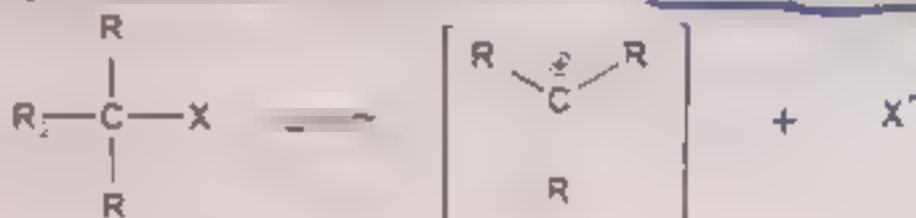
- The rate of an S_N1 reaction depends upon the concentration of substrate only.
- The change in concentration of substrate has a first order effect on the rate. Thus

$$\text{Rate} = k[RX]$$

- Because the rate of reaction depends only on the concentration of substrate, the rate of reaction does not depend on the concentration of nucleophile.

2. Stereochemical Evidence.

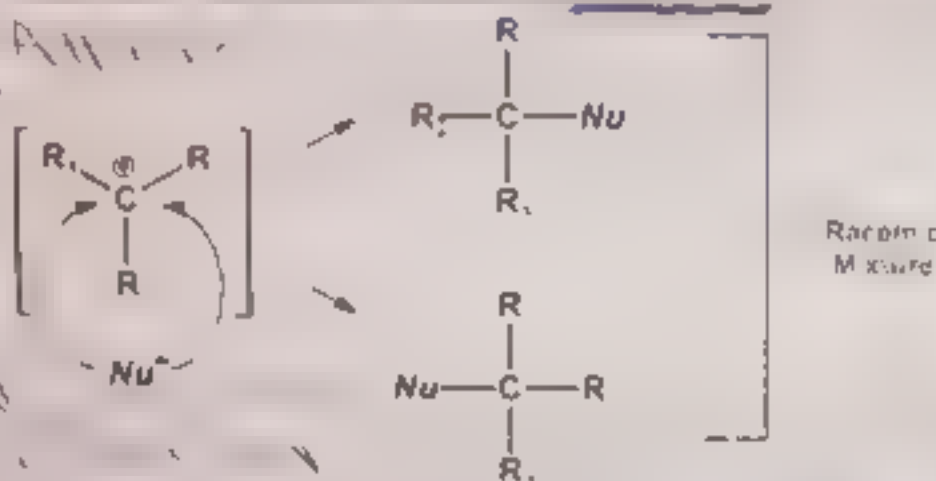
- Experiments have shown that the configuration of the substrate is lost during the reaction.
- The extent of partial racemization depends upon the stability of the carbocation intermediate.



- The carbocation intermediate is planar and the nucleophile can attack from either side of the plane.
- The nucleophile can attack from either side of the plane with equal probability.



R



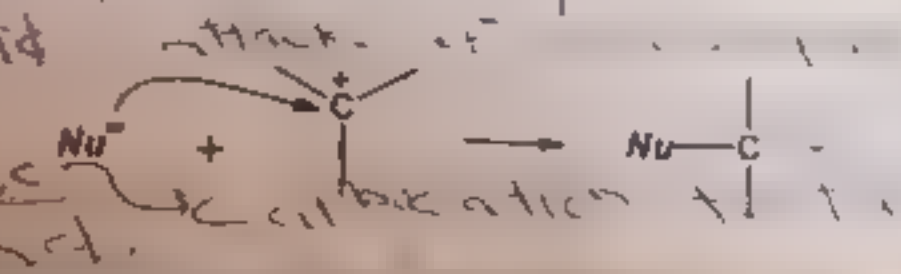
- However, Partial Racemization generally occurs during S_N1 reactions.

- Consider the case of unstable carbocation, the carbocation is planar and the nucleophile can attack from either side of the plane.
- Hence, the side of carbon atom to which the nucleophile attacks is not fixed.
- Thus, the attack of nucleophile is equal from both sides of the plane, leading to inversion of configuration.
- Hence, one enantiomer is formed in more amount, therefore the product has some optical activity.

Step 1: Slow loss of LG to generate intermediate.



Step 2: Rapid electrophilic attack.



S_N2 MECHANISM

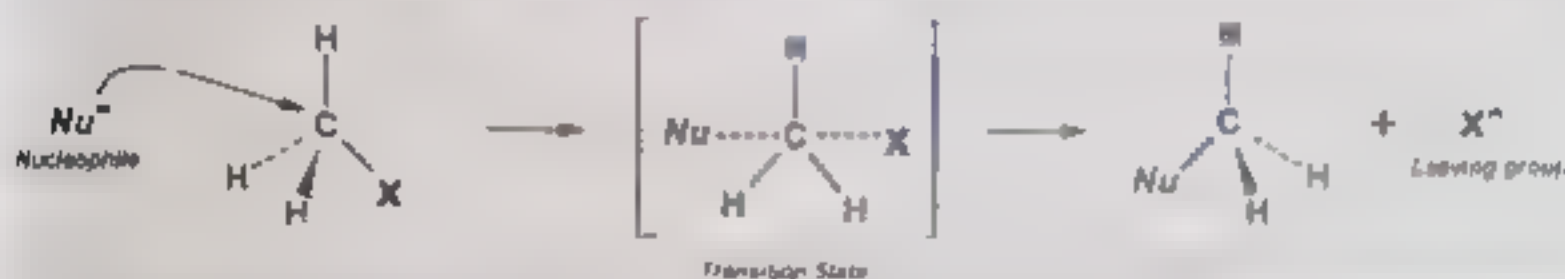
It is substitution nucleophilic bimolecular reaction. It occurs in one step.

Example



Mechanism.

- The attack of nucleophile on carbon and the departure of leaving group occur in a single step.



- The reaction occurs in one step, so it is the rate determining step. In this one step, both bond breaking and bond making processes occur simultaneously.
- Since two molecules are involved in the rate determining step, it is a bimolecular nucleophilic substitution reaction.

EVIDENCES FOR S_N2 MECHANISM

(1) Kinetic Evidence

- The rate of an S_N2 reaction depends upon the concentration of alkyl halide.



The rate expression for the reaction can be written as:

$$\text{Rate} = [\text{Nu}][\text{R-X}]$$

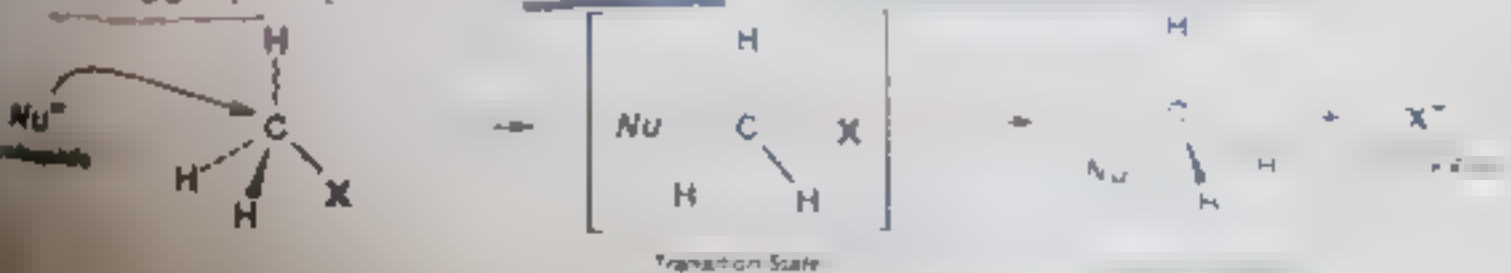
where x = 1



- This means that the rate of reaction is directly proportional to the concentration of alkyl halide.

(2) Stereochemical Evidence

- Bimolecular nucleophilic substitution always occurs with inversion of configuration.
- The carbon atom in transition state is sp² hybridized and the leaving groups are present in the transition state on opposite sides.





TOPIC: THE SCIENCE OF CRIME

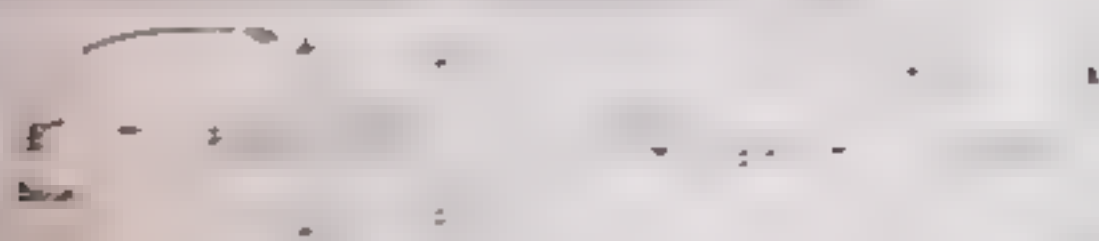
1. CRIME SCENE

1.1. What is a crime scene?

CRIME SCENE

Scene

Scene 1: 1st scene



Scene 2: 2nd scene
 Scene 3: 3rd scene

EVIDENCE: 1st scene

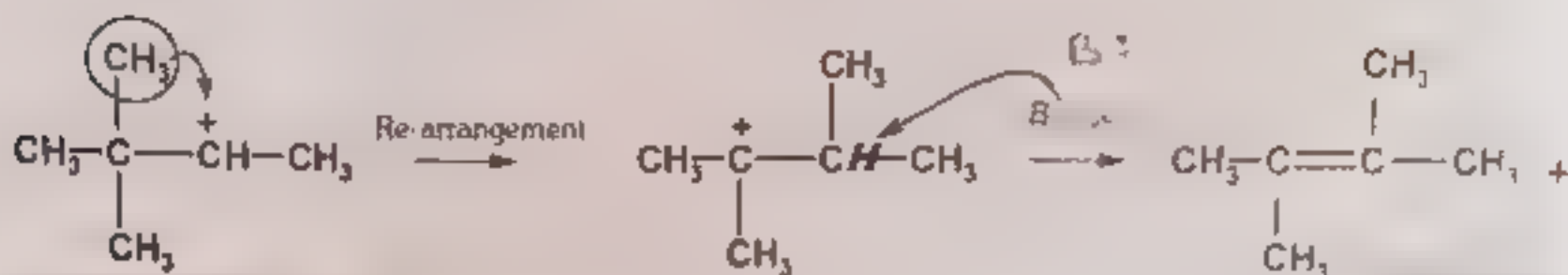
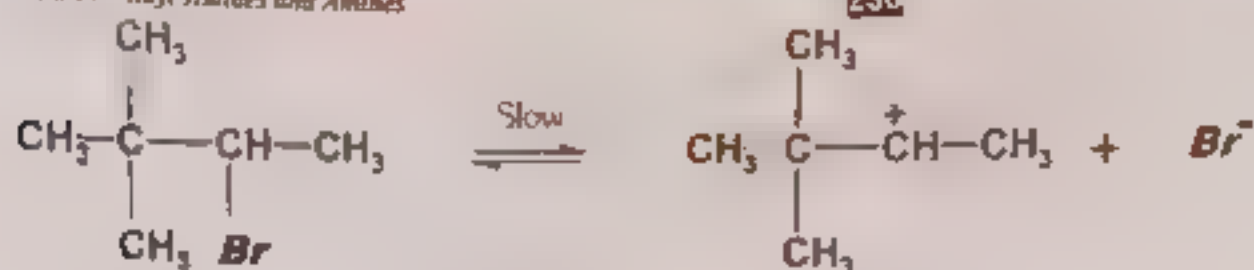
1.1. Crime Scene

- 1st scene
- 2nd scene

Scene 1: 1st scene

2. Crime Scene

- 1st scene
- 2nd scene
- 3rd scene

**E2 MECHANISM**

It is bimolecular one step elimination reaction

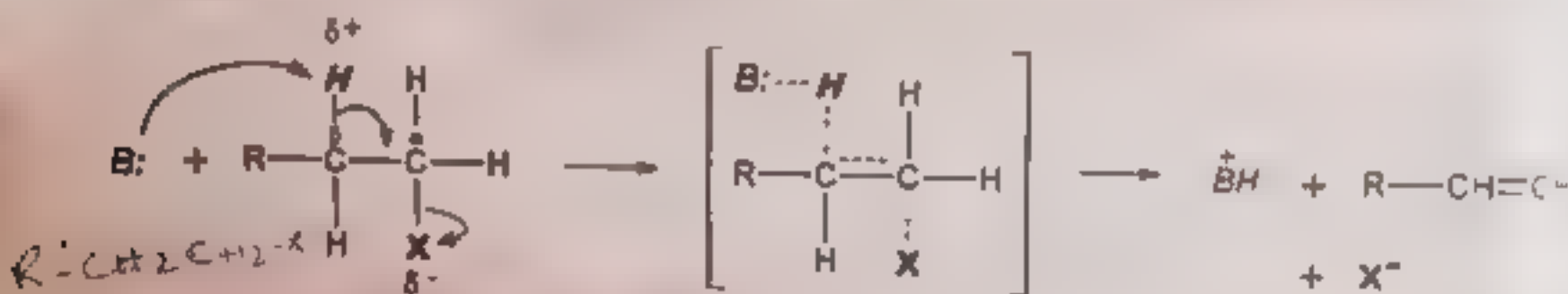
Example:

Consider the reaction,



Mechanism:

- It is a one-step reaction.
- The attacking base removes a proton from the β -carbon simultaneously with the formation of double bond between C_α and C_β and the loss of halide ions



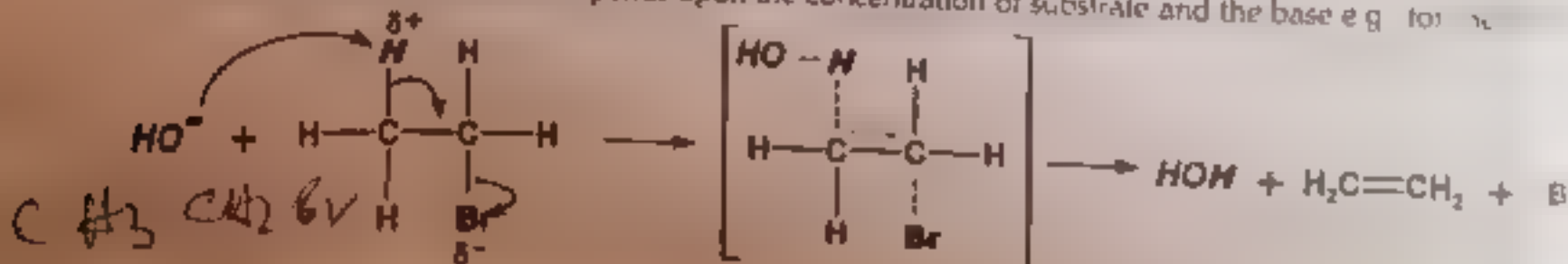
- This is rate determining step because bond breaking and bond making processes are taking place simultaneously.
- Since two molecules are undergoing a change in transition state, it is a one-step bimolecular elimination reaction.

EVIDENCES FOR E2 MECHANISM**(1) Kinetic Evidence**

- The E2 is a one-step process in which both the substrate and the base participate. Thus, the rate law of the E2-reaction is

$$\text{Rate} = k [\text{Substrate}][\text{Base}]$$

Thus, the rate of E2 reaction depends upon the concentration of substrate and the base e.g. for the



The rate of reaction follows second order kinetics i.e. Rate = $k[\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{Br}][\text{HO}^-]$

SUBSTITUTION VERSUS ELIMINATION REACTIONS

- The substitution and elimination reactions compete with each other because of close similarity in the mechanism.
- Energetically substitution is more favorable than elimination reaction in the substitution reaction.
- Elimination occurs only in the presence of beta hydrogen $^{\circ}H$ require this condition.

Following factors help to compare these two pathways

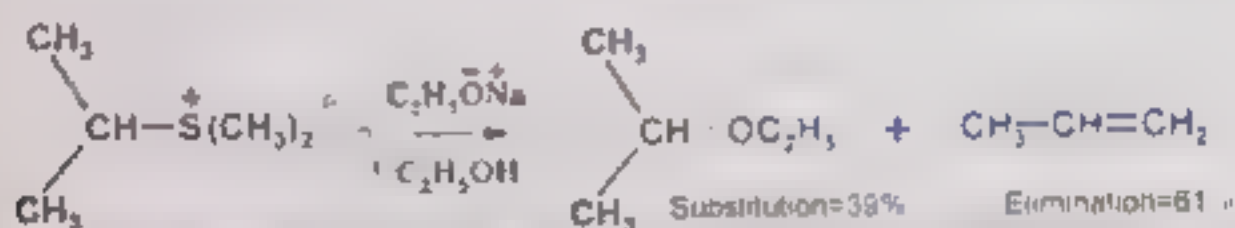
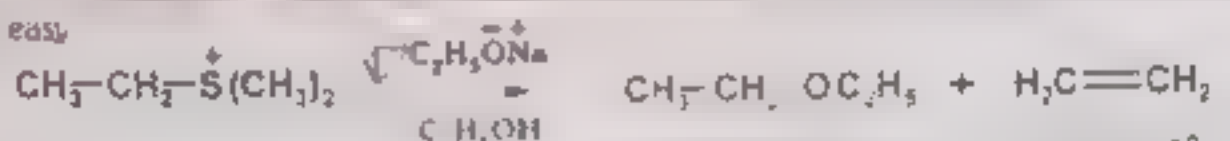
(i) Structure of Substrate:

Crowding within the substrate favors elimination over substitution

It is because the sp^3 carbon is more crowded than sp^2 carbon.

However, the sp^3 carbon is more reactive than sp^2 carbon in the substitution reaction.

carbocation is easy

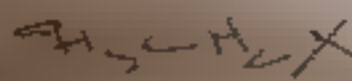
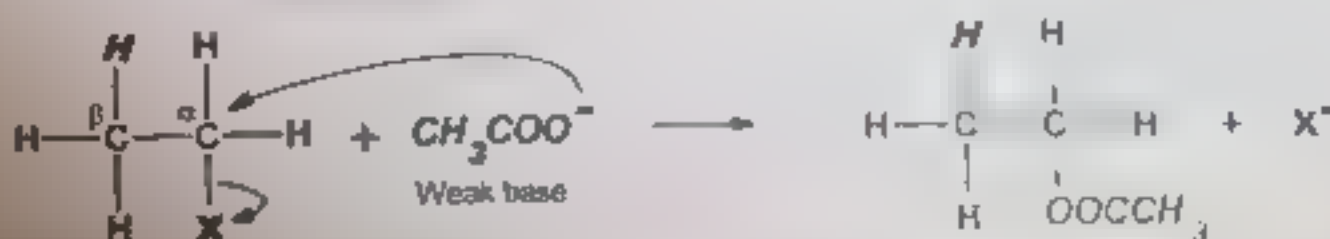


Remember: sp^3 carbon is more reactive than sp^2 carbon in the substitution reaction.

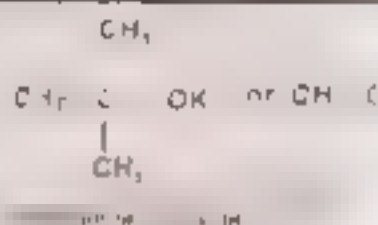
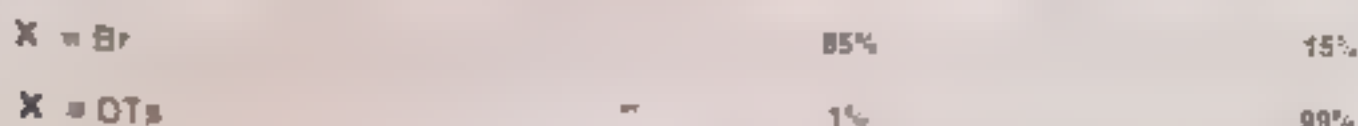


(ii) Nature of Base:

- When the electron pair donor is a strong base e.g., HO^- , RO^- etc. the dominant reaction is E2. The S_N2 reaction is a side reaction.
- However, when the nucleophile is a weak base e.g., CH_3COO^- , CH_3COOH etc. the dominant reaction is S_N2 . The E2 will be a minor side reaction.



- The ...
- ... depends upon the ...



El is not a good leaving group. In aprotic solvents, the reaction will follow SN2.
 In polar solvents, the reaction will follow SN1.

An increase in temperature will favor more than substitution
1 is because

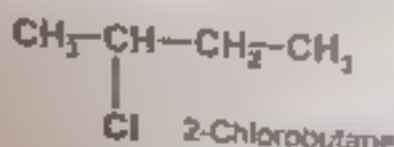
Monohaloalkanes are called alkyl halides. These have general formula $C_nH_{2n+1}X$. These may be classified as primary, secondary or tertiary, a.k.a. $1^\circ, 2^\circ, 3^\circ$ halides.

e.g. CH_3Cl $\text{CH}_3\text{---CH}_2\text{---Cl}$
Methyl chloride Ethyl chloride

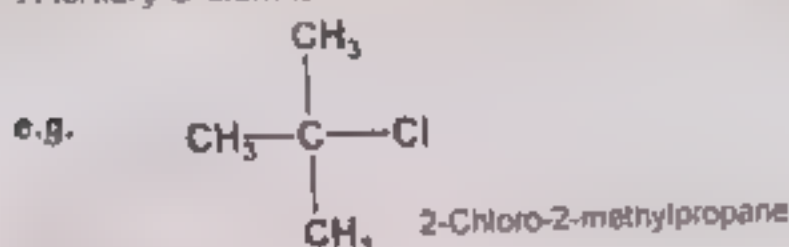
e.g.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ | \\ \text{CH}-\text{Cl} \\ | \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$$

2-Chloropropane



- A tertiary C-atom is attached to three C-atoms simultaneously is called a tertiary C-atom



3) What is carbonium ion

A carbocation is a reaction intermediate. It is trivalent with a positive charge on carbon atom. It can be produced as follows



NOTE. Carbonium ion is an old term. It is no longer in use. The current term for such species is carbocation.

(4) What is leaving group

Leaving group is a nucleophile that leaves during substitution reaction with an unshared pair of electrons.

- The incoming nucleophile must be stronger than the leaving group
- Good Leaving Groups are: Cl^- , Br^- , I^- , HSO_4^-
- Poor leaving groups are OH^- , OR^- and NH_2^-
- Iodide ion is a good nucleophile as well as a good leaving group

(5) What is sp^3 -hybridization

The process of mixing one s orbital and three p orbitals to form four equivalent sp^3 hybrid orbitals is called sp^3 hybridization.

The ratio of s and p character in each sp^3 hybrid orbital is 1:3. That is, each sp^3 hybrid orbital has 25% s-character and 75% p-character.

e.g. In CH_4 , carbon atom undergoes sp^3 hybridization.

(6) Define bond polarity

The property of shared pair of electrons being attracted more towards one of the atoms is called bond polarity.

e.g. the bond between H and Cl in HCl is a polar bond.

(7) Define bond energy

The amount of energy required to break one mole of a covalent bond is called bond energy.

e.g. $\text{H}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}$, $\Delta H = +435 \text{ kJ/mol}$. Thus bond energy of H-H is 435 kJ/mol .

(8) What is a nucleophile?

A species in search of positive charge is called a nucleophile.

Or It is a species rich in electron and has an unshared pair of electrons.

It may be negatively charged or neutral.

Examples

HO^-	Hydroxide ion	H_2O	Water
$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{O}^-$	Ethoxide ion		

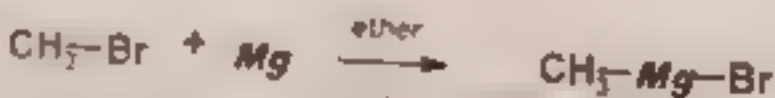
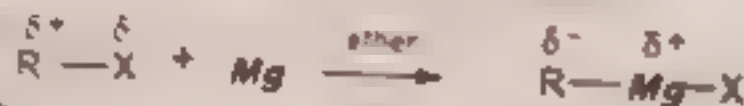


ORGANOMETALLIC COMPOUNDS (GRIGNARD'S REAGENTS)

Formation of Grignard's reagent and reaction of Grignard's reagent

Preparation of Grignard's Reagent

Procedure:



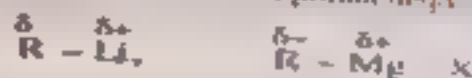
ethyl magnesium bromide

Important

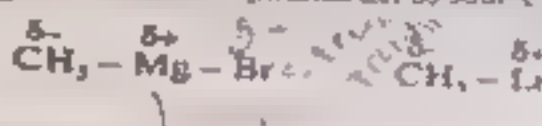
- Alkyl bromides are used in the preparation of Grignard's reagents because of its intermediate reactivity because reflux.
- When more reactive halides are used the high boiling solvent such as tetrahydrofuran is employed.
- When less reactive halides are used.
- Alkyl magnesium halides are not isolated but are used as ethereal lavers.

REACTIVITY

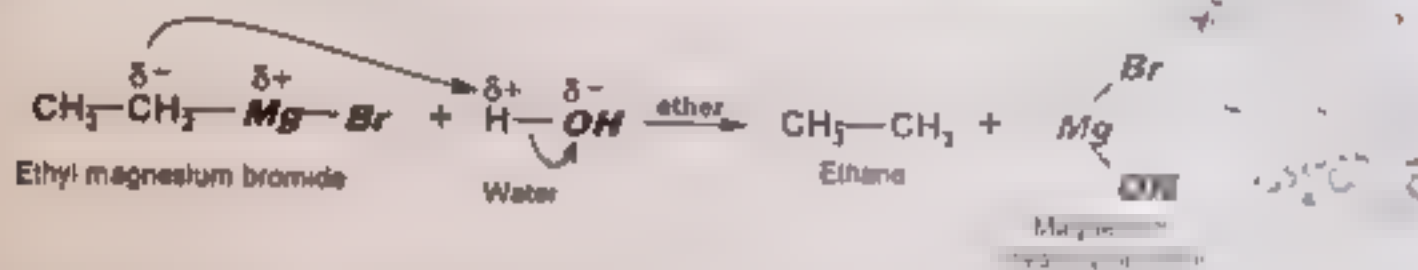
- Organometallic compounds are nucleophilic because of partial negative charge



- Carbon atom being more electronegative than metals such as Mg, Li etc. has a partial negative charge. Thus, organometallic compounds act as source of nucleophilic attack.



- The following reaction supports the nucleophilic character of organometallic compounds.



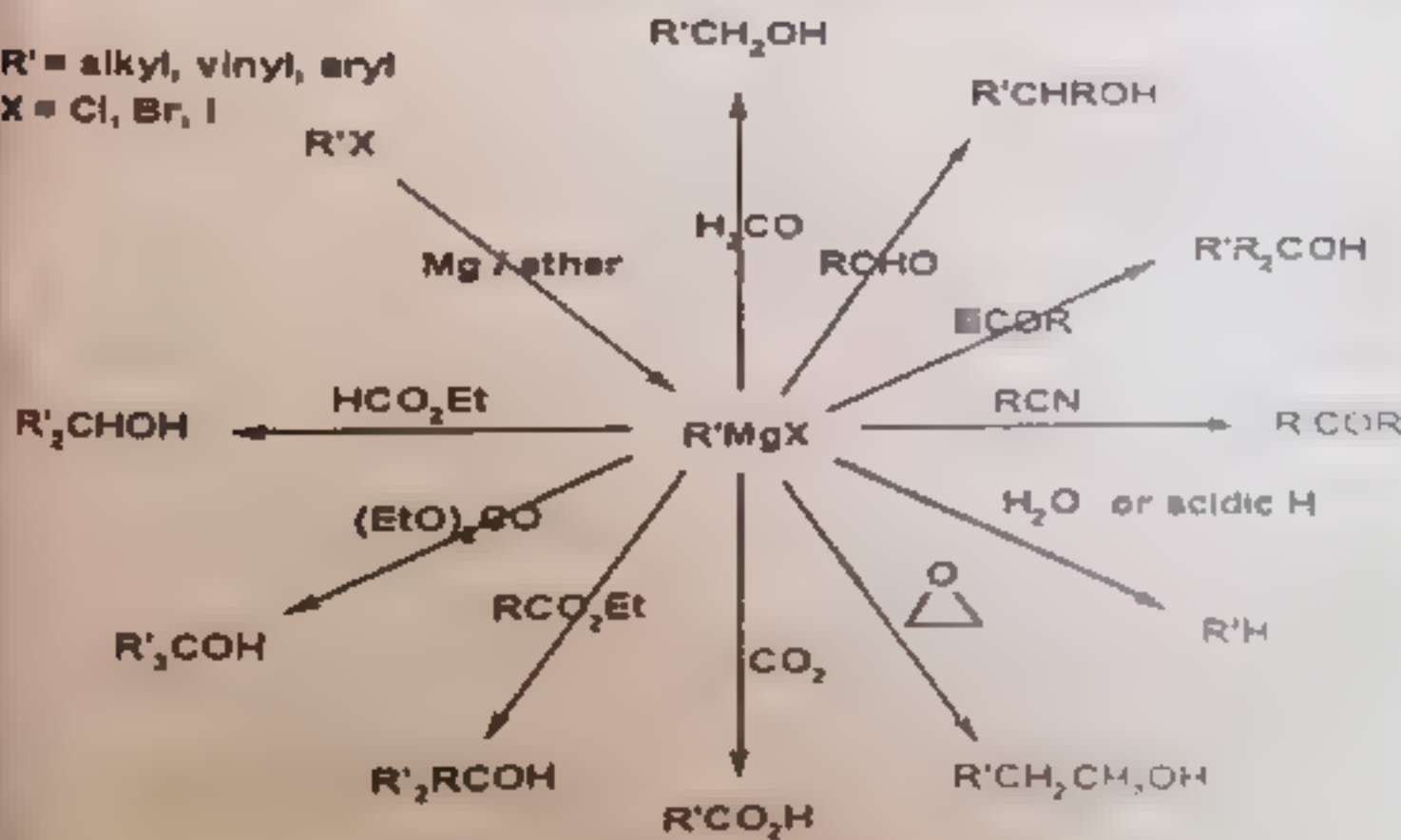
Remember! Abbreviations for common Alkyl/Aryl groups. These are to be used in reactions.

Methyl (Me), Ethyl (Et), n Propyl (n-Pr), isopropyl (iso-Pr), Phenyl (Ph).

REACTIONS OF GRIGNARD'S REAGENTS

Brief Summary

R' = alkyl, vinyl, aryl
X = Cl, Br, I



Typical work-up for these reactions:

1. Dilute aqueous acid or
2. Aqueous ammonium chloride

(1) With Aldehydes and Ketones

This is done to produce primary, secondary and tertiary alcohols.

These reactions are carried in the presence of ether followed by acidic hydrolysis.

Classification of Monohydric Alcohols

The alcohols containing only one hydroxyl group, $-OH$, are called monohydric alcohols.

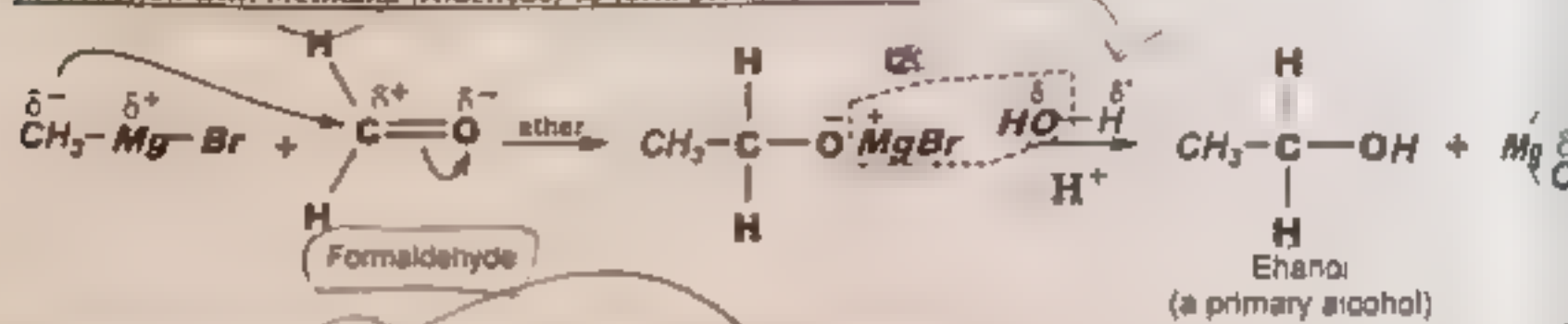
Monohydric alcohols are classified into the three types.

(i) Primary alcohols

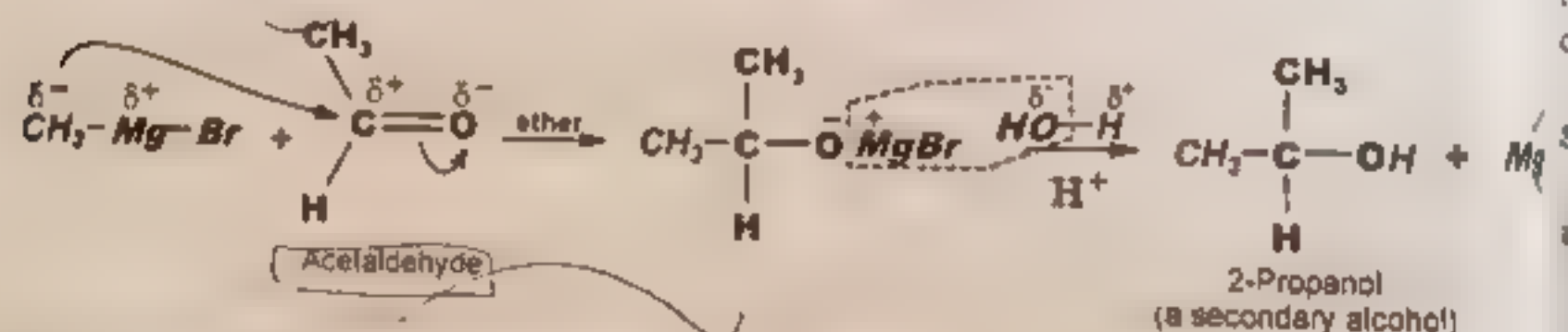
(ii) Secondary alcohols

(iii) Tertiary alcohols

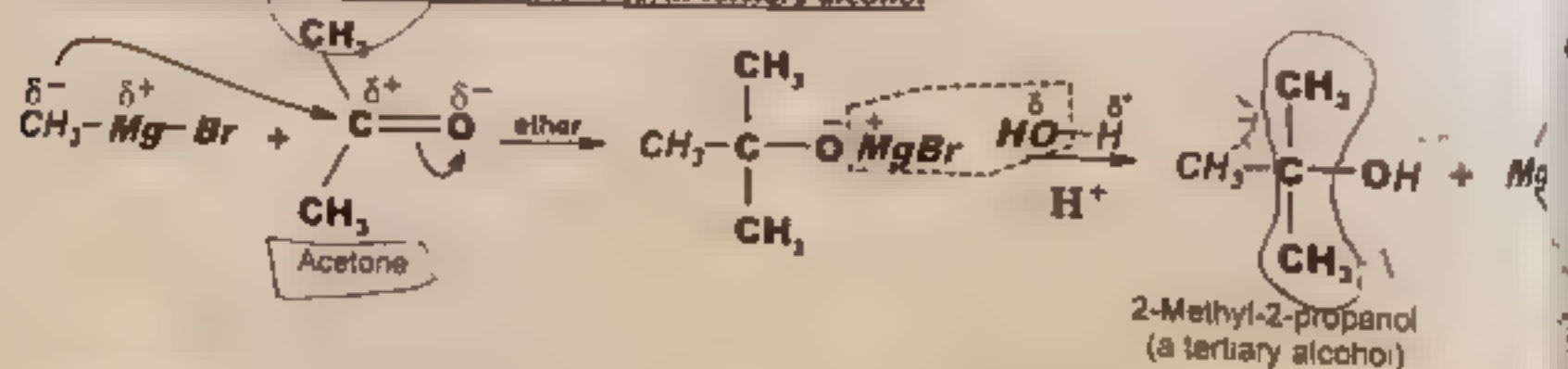
(i) Reaction with Methanal (Aldehyde) to form primary alcohol



(ii) Reaction with Ethanal (Aldehyde) to form secondary alcohol



(iii) Reaction with Propanone (Ketone) to form tertiary alcohol



(2) With Esters

- Carboxylic esters, R_1COOR_2 react with 2 equivalents of organolithium or Grignard reagents to give tertiary alcohols.
- The tertiary alcohol contains 2 identical alkyl groups which comes from two units of Grignard reagent.
- The reaction proceeds via a ketone intermediate. It further reacts with the second equivalent of organometallic reagent to give tertiary alcohol.
- Since the ketone is more reactive than the ester, the reaction cannot be stopped at the ketone stage. Hence this reaction cannot be used for the preparation of ketones.

Step 1:

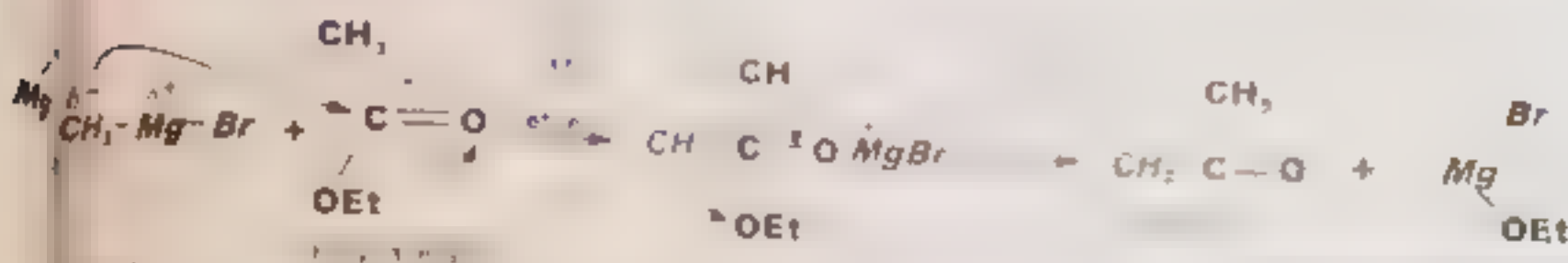
The Constitution

the acid. Electrons from the $C=O$ move to the O .

Step 2

Таблица 1

Prüfung 2017/18



Step 3

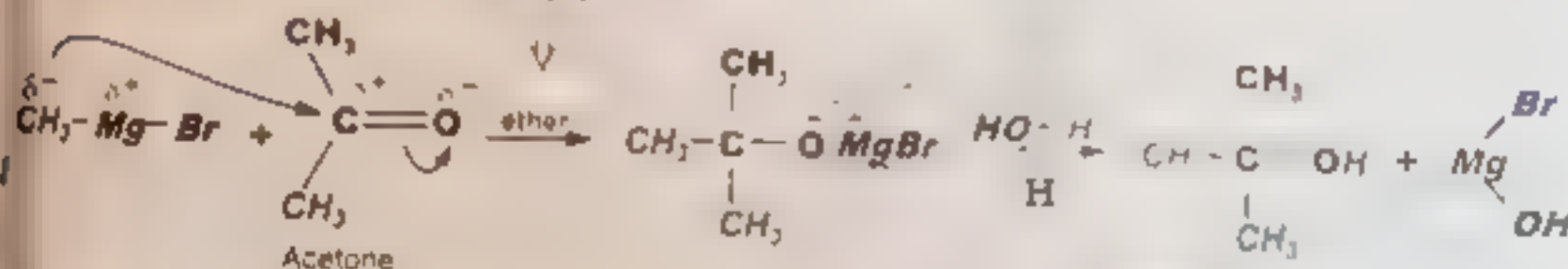
The nucleophilic C in the
the ketone. Electrons from the C=O move to the
complex.

Step 4

This is the work up sign of a ...

Alcohol present from the intermedial axis complex

Set 3



QUICK QUIZ-2 (4) How does R-Mg-X react with CO_2 ?

(3) With CO_2 (Carbonylation of Grignard Reagents, RMgX)

Step 1

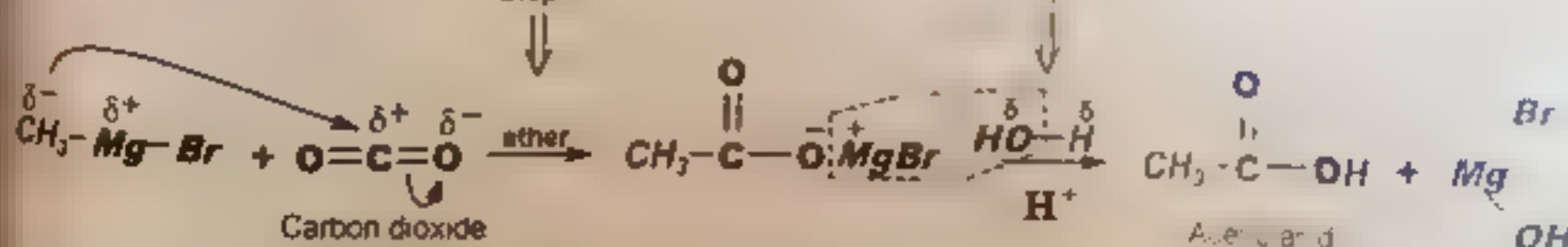
The nucleophilic C in the Grignard reagent adds to the electrophilic C of the carbonyl group. The pi electrons from the C=O move to the electronegative O creating an intermediate called a tetrahedral intermediate.

Step 2:

This is the work-up step. It is a simple acid base reaction. Protonate the carboxylic acid product from the intermediate complex.

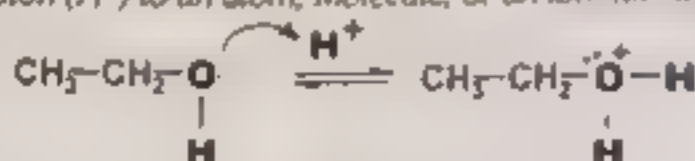
Step 1

Seq 2



Examples: Grignard's reagent, e.g. $\text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{Mg}-\text{Cl}$ Alkyl Lithium compounds, e.g. $\text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{Li}$

Example



Examples: Methyl lithium, $\text{H}_3\text{C} - \text{Li}$: Phenyl lithium, $\text{Ph} - \text{Li}$

Solved on Page 232 above

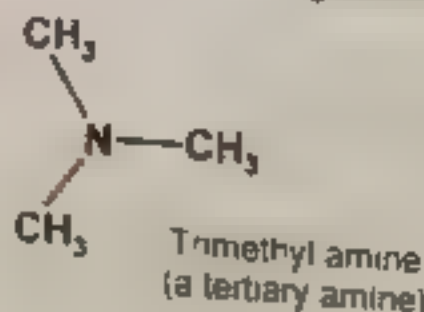
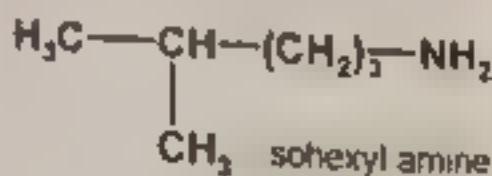
Examples. Methyl magnesium chloride $\text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{Mg}-\text{Cl}$ Ethyl magnesium bromide $\text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{CH}_2-\text{Mg}-\text{Br}$

Exercise Q3 (vii) What are the amines? Give its nomenclature.

The organic compounds containing NH_2 functional groups are called amines.

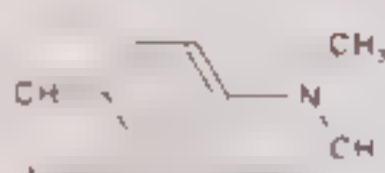
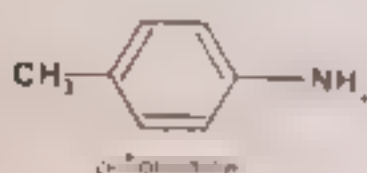
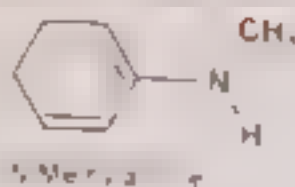
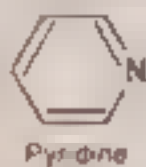
1. Common System of Naming

The common names of amines are written by adding the suffix-amine to the name of alkyl or aryl radicals:



Aromatic Amines

Aniline, $C_6H_5NH_2$ containing methyl or substituted in $-NH_2$ its name is represent N-atom and not on the ring like $-NHCH_3$



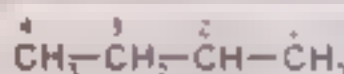
2. IUPAC System of Naming Amines

Primary amines

- Select the longest continuous carbon chain.
- The amino group is indicated by a prefix amino followed by name of hydrocarbon.
- Number the carbon atoms in the chain.
- The position of amino group is indicated by a number.
- If more than one amino group is present, use di, tri, etc.



Aminomethane



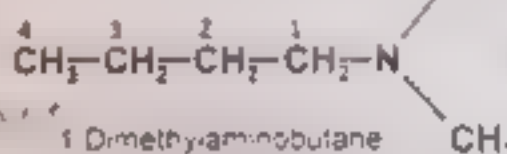
2-Aminopropane

Secondary and Tertiary amines

- Secondary and tertiary amines are named by using a prefix di, tri, etc. followed by the name of the alkyl group except the largest alkyl group (e.g. dimethylamino, triethylamino etc.)

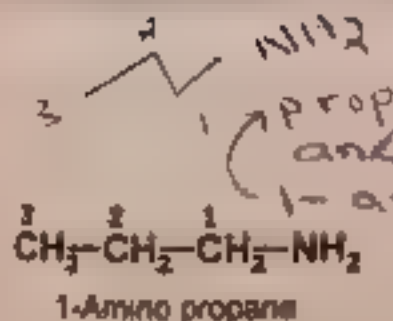


Methylaminoethane



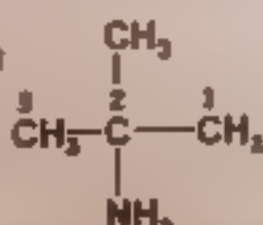
1-Dimethylaminobutane

More Practice

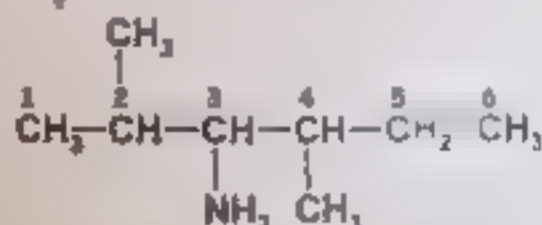


Primary amines

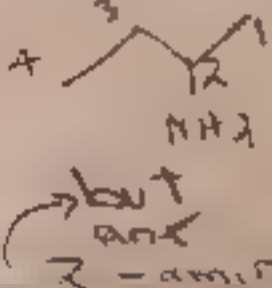
1-Prop an amine



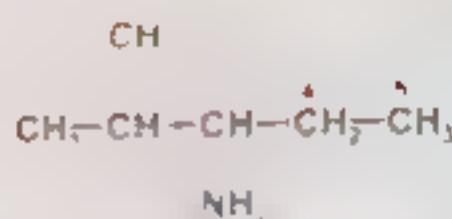
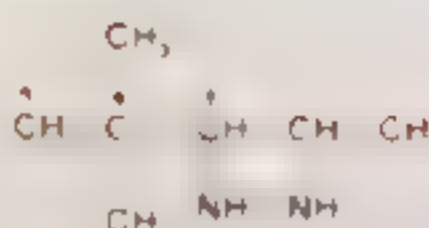
2-Amino-2-methylpropane



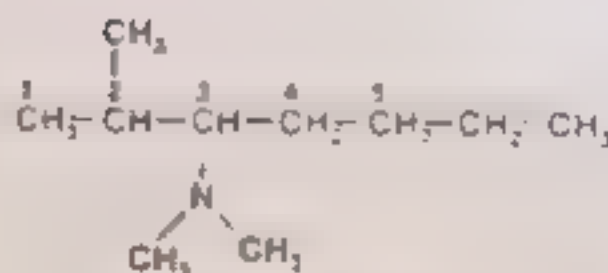
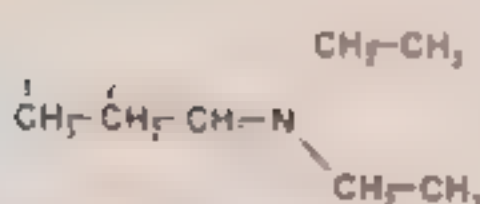
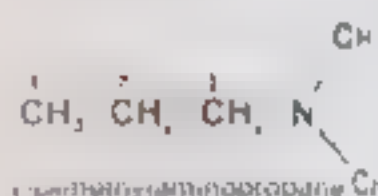
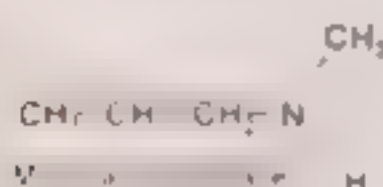
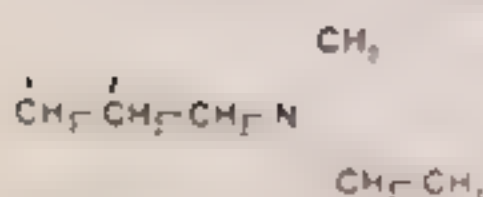
3-Amino-2,4-dimethyl hexane



1° amine because with NH2

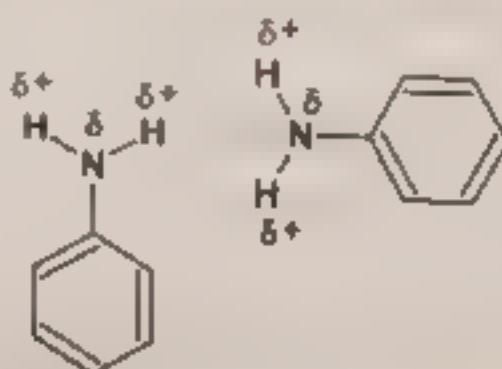


Secondary and Tertiary amines



PHYSICAL PROPERTIES:

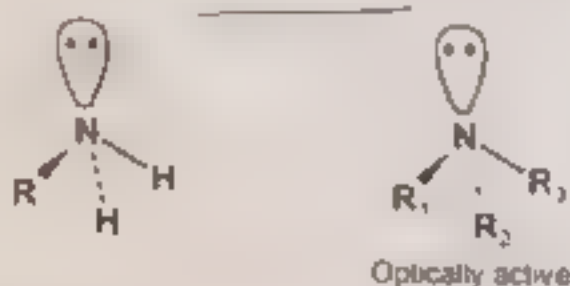
- The polar nature of the N-H bond results in the formation of intermolecular hydrogen bonding between the two atoms, resulting in a higher boiling point than expected for other bonding systems (e.g. water).
- Thus, amines have
 - high melting and boiling points compared to alcohols of similar molecular weight
 - high solubility in aqueous media



Intermolecular hydrogen bonding in amines

STRUCTURE

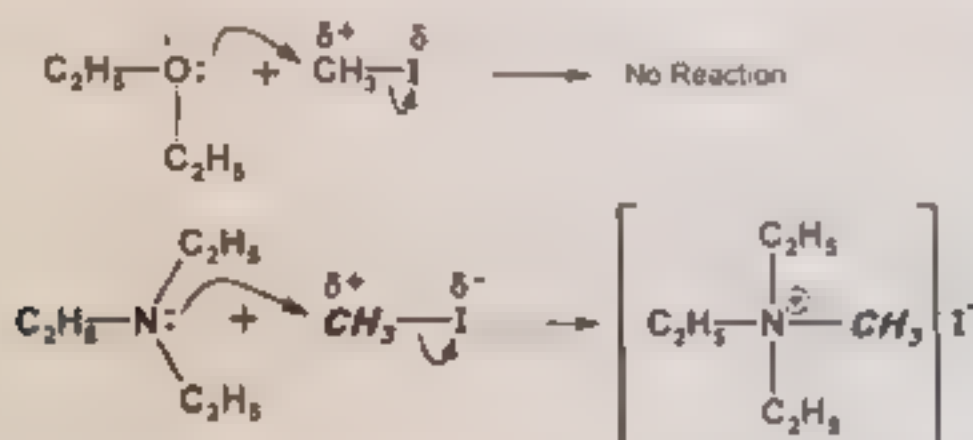
- In amines, nitrogen atom is sp^3 hybridized and has near tetrahedral geometry.
- It forms three sigma bonds with its three sp^3 hybrid orbitals while the fourth non-bonding sp^3 hybrid carries a pair electron.



- The non-bonding electron pair is extremely important in explaining the chemical behavior of amines as it is responsible for the basic and nucleophilic properties of these compounds.
- An amine with three different groups is optically active.

BASICITY

- Amines may act as bases towards acids and as nucleophiles towards electrophiles.
- They are more basic than alcohols and ethers and they are also more nucleophilic. e.g., ether does not react whereas at the same temperature amines give addition product with CH_3I .



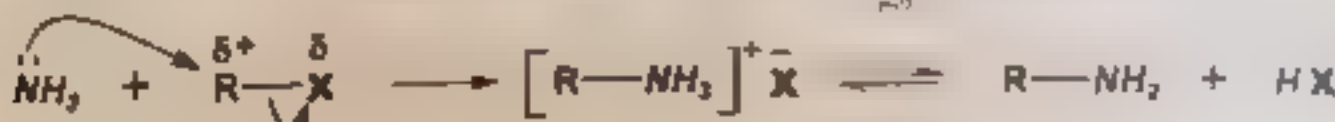
PREPARATION OF AMINES

(I) ALKYLATION OF AMMONIA BY ALKYL HALIDES

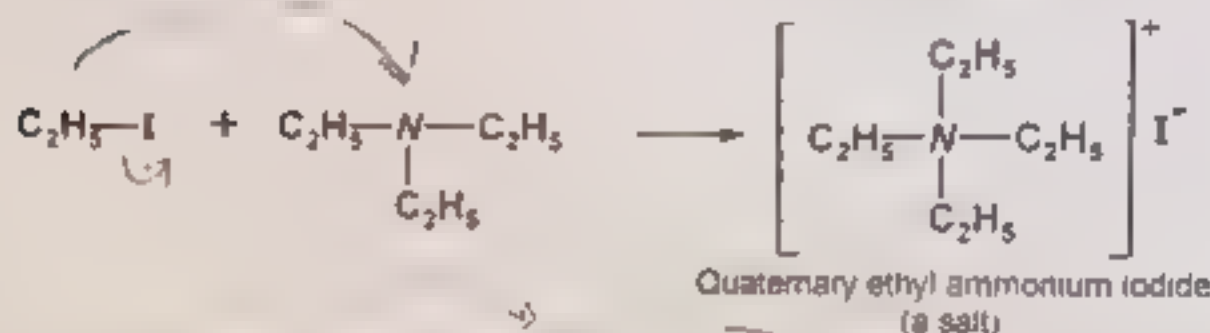
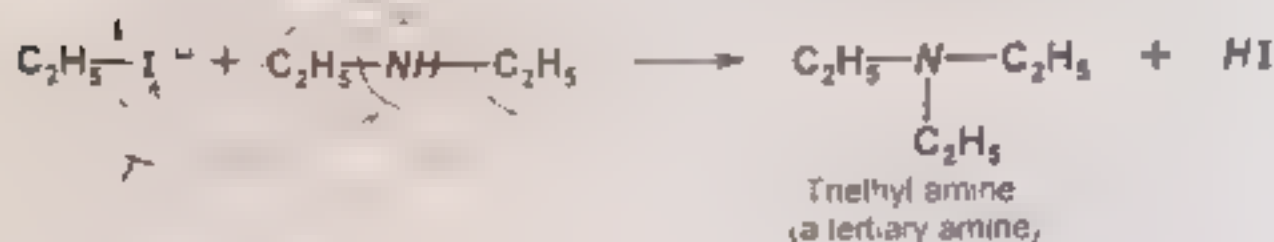
- The general reaction is



- When an alcoholic or aqueous solution of ammonia is heated with an alkyl halide, a mixture of primary, secondary, tertiary amines and a quaternary ammonium salt is obtained.
- The reaction occurs with nucleophilic displacement of halide by ammonia or amines.



- This reaction is further alkylation, e.g., accompanies by the following reactions

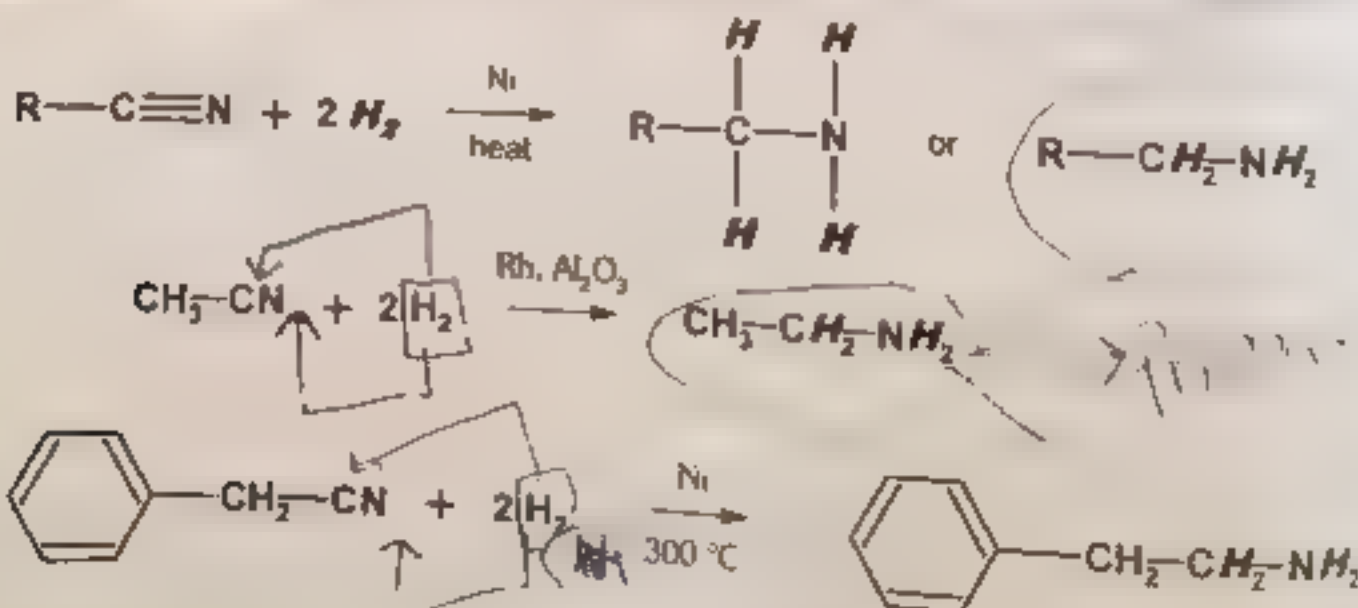


- At the end of the reaction addition of strong alkali such as KOH liberates free amines from their salts the quaternary salt is unaffected.
- The three amines are separated by fractional distillation
- Over alkylation can be avoided by using excess of ammonia but the yield is low

(2) REDUCTIONS OF NITROGEN CONTAINING FUNCTIONAL GROUPS:

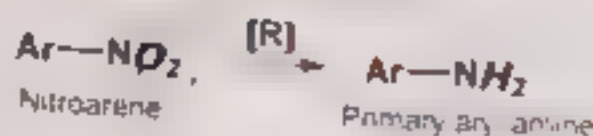
(I) REDUCTION OF NITRILES

- Reduction of alkyl or aryl nitriles gives primary amines
- The reduction may be brought about by LiAlH_4 or sodium in ethanol
- Catalytic hydrogenation with $\text{Rh}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, Pt or Raney nickel may also be employed to get primary

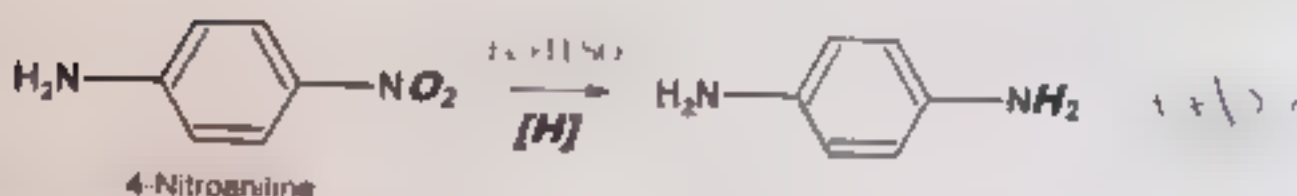
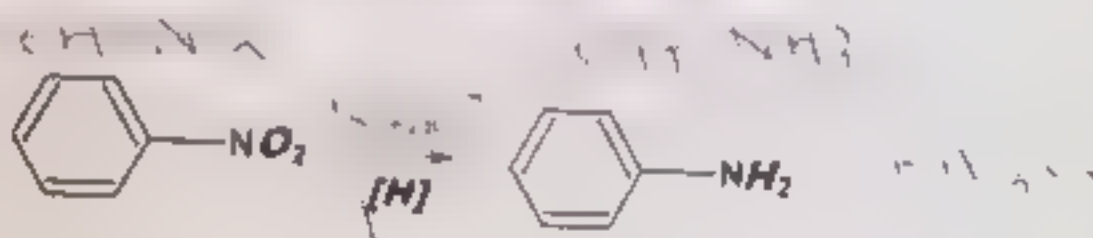


(II) REDUCTION OF NITRO COMPOUNDS

- The general reaction is



- Nitroarenes can be reduced to primary amines.
- Typical reducing agents include Fe/H^+ , Sn/H^+ , Zn/H^+ , SnCl_2/HCl , NaBH_4 , LiAlH_4 , H_2 over Ni , Pd .
- Nitro compounds on catalytic or chemical reduction yield primary amines.

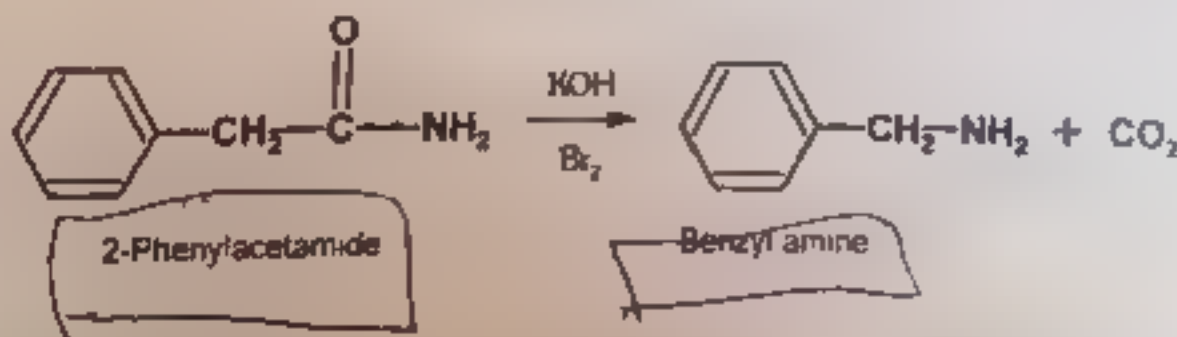
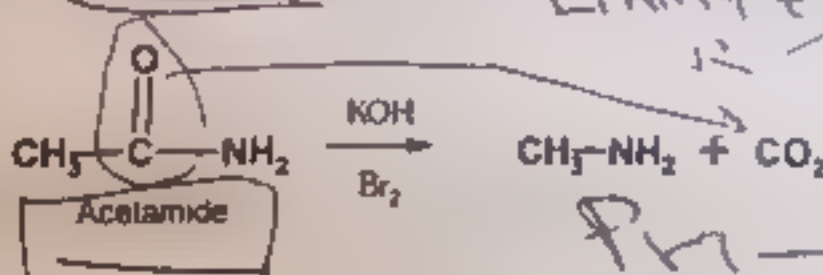


(III) REDUCTION OF AMIDES

- The amides can be reduced to amines by reducing agents



- An amide on treatment with Bromine in the presence of KOH yields primary amines.
- The reaction occurs through rearrangement.



Exercise Q 3 ix What are the main features which increase the basicity of amine?

REACTIVITY/BASICITY

• Amine basicity: $\text{NH}_3 < \text{CH}_3\text{NH}_2 < \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{NH}_2 < \text{C}_3\text{H}_7\text{NH}_2$

• The basicity of amines is measured in terms of pK_b

(i) $\text{NH}_3 + \text{H}^+ \rightleftharpoons \text{NH}_4^+$

(ii) $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_2 + \text{H}^+ \rightleftharpoons \text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3^+$

Consider the above reactions



The strength of a base is expressed in terms of pK_b , i.e.

$$\text{pK}_\text{b} = -\log K_\text{b}$$

For ammonia and methylamine, the pK_b values are

$$\text{pK}_\text{b}(\text{NH}_3) = 4.76 \quad ; \quad \text{pK}_\text{b}(\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_2) = 3.38$$

Since $\text{pK}_\text{b}(\text{NH}_3) > \text{pK}_\text{b}(\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_2)$, methylamine is a stronger base than ammonia.

This is due to two factors

(i) In ammonia, the lone pair of electron is attracted by 3 orbitals of hydrogen atoms. The CH_3 alkyl group has electron donating ability. Hence, in CH_3NH_2 , sp^3 orbitals of carbon push electrons towards nitrogen. Therefore, the pair of electron on nitrogen is relatively more available in methylamine than ammonia.

(ii) The methyl ammonium ion (CH_3NH_3^+) is stabilized due to electron donating inductive effect of methyl group. On the other hand, NH_4^+ ion is not stabilized by hydrogen atoms since one lone pair on nitrogen has been used up.

Both these factors favour methylamine to a stronger base than ammonia.

• Higher members show deviation from this behaviour

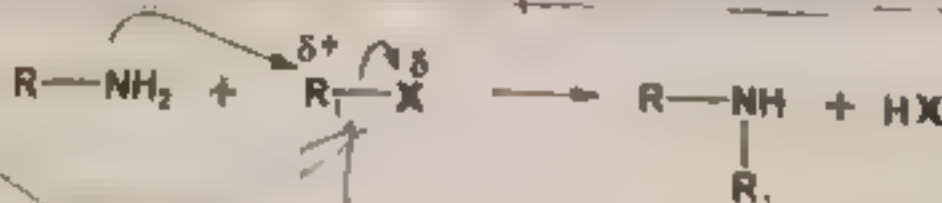
It is because the stabilization of a positive ion depends upon solvation, hydrogen bonding and resonance stabilization. Large size alkyl ammonium ions are less solvated. Also, large size alkyl group is highly non-polar, so the solvation decreases in water.

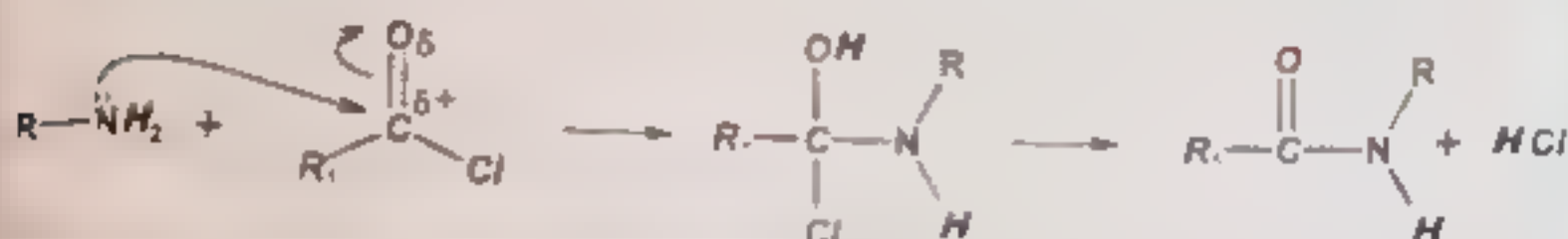
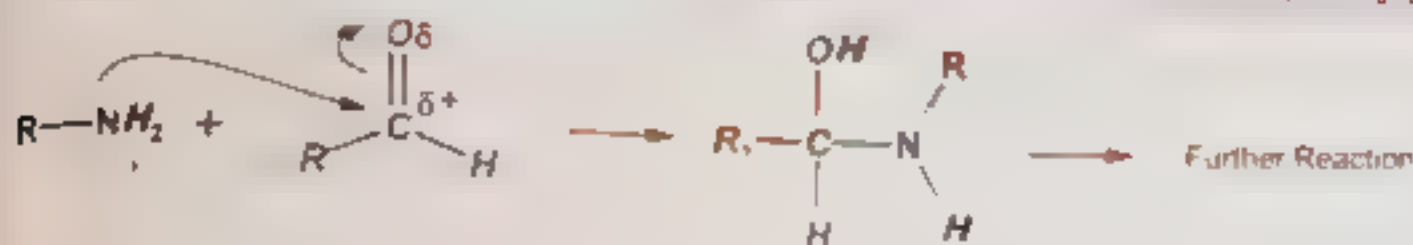
• Moreover, the availability of non-bonding pair of electrons is also affected by steric factor. In such cases, these aspects

REACTIONS OF AMINES

The important organic reactions of amines (nucleophiles) are with the common electrophiles

- Alkyl halides via nucleophilic substitution
- Aldehydes or ketones via nucleophilic addition
- Carboxylic acid derivatives, especially acid chlorides or anhydrides via nucleophilic acyl substitution



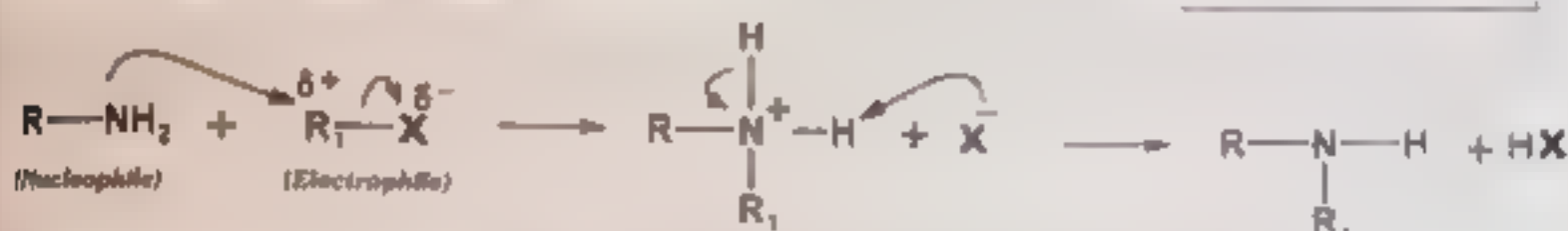


(i) ALKYLATION OF AMINE BY ALKYL HALIDES

The alkylation of amines is called alkylation.

It produces secondary or tertiary amines.

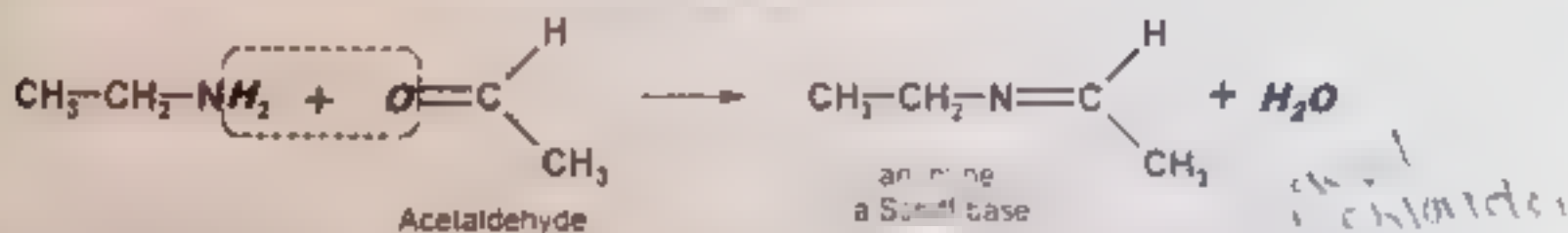
See Reaction (iv) on page 246



$R_1NH_3^+$ loses a proton with a base to give a free amine.

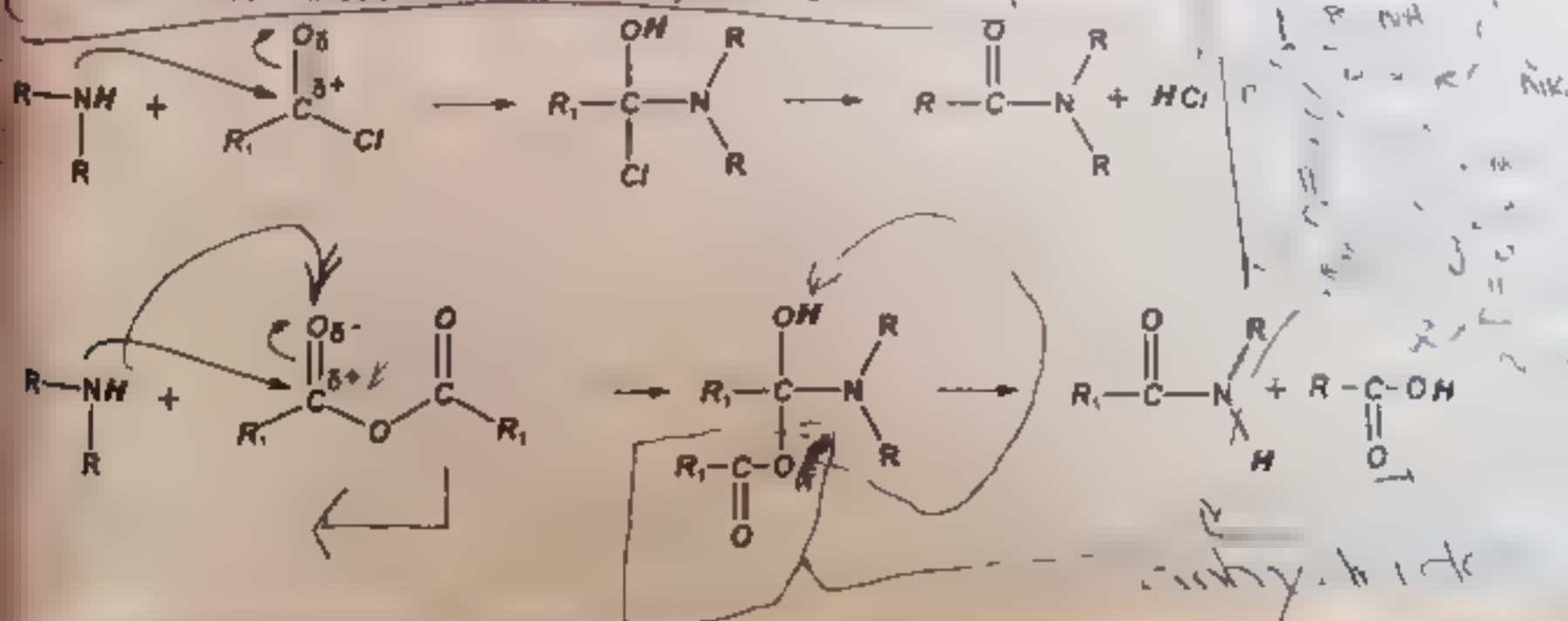
(ii) REACTIONS OF PRIMARY AMINES WITH ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

Aldehydes and ketones react with primary amines to form Schiff bases.



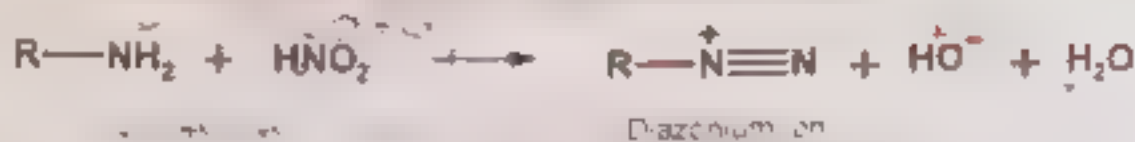
(iii) PREPARATION OF AMIDES

The amines react with acid halides and acid anhydrides to give amides.

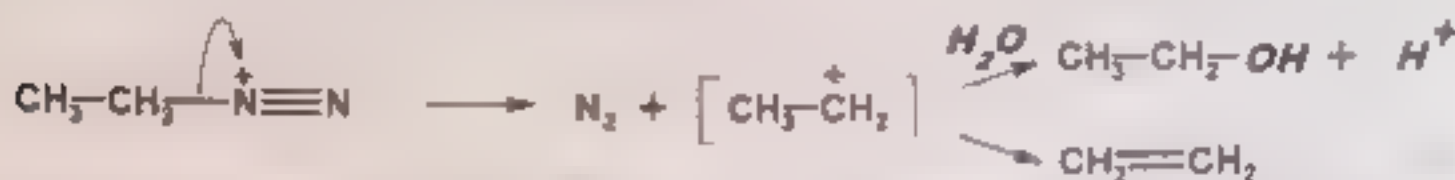


(a) PREPARATION OF DIAZONIUM SALTS

When amines react with HNO_2 as a reagent, they form diazonium salts.



The diazonium group, group is rather unstable. In the case of the ethyldiazonium ion, it decomposes as



When the N_2^+ group is attached to a benzene ring through, the ion is stabilized to some extent by the delocalisation of the π electrons of the ring. The benzenediazonium ion is therefore much more stable than its aliphatic counterpart. Nevertheless, it decomposes readily above 100°C .

QUICK QUIZ-3

(1) Define hydration

The addition of water to a substance is called hydration.

Example: The addition of water to alkenes gives alcohols.

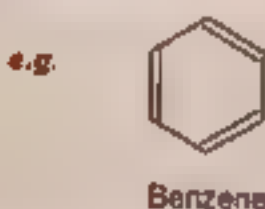
(2) What is the difference between alicyclic and aromatic compounds

Non-benzenoid cyclic hydrocarbons are alicyclic hydrocarbons.

Alicyclic hydrocarbons possess two hydrogen atoms less than the corresponding open chain hydrocarbons.



Benzenoid cyclic hydrocarbons are known as aromatic hydrocarbons.

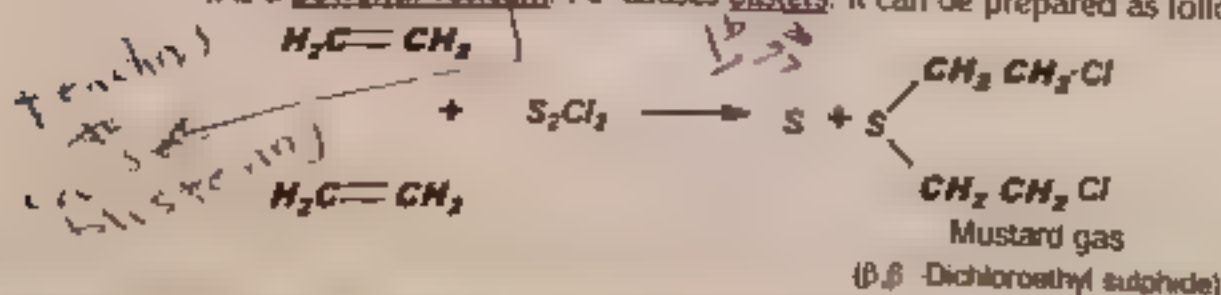


(3) Define IUPAC

IUPAC stands for International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry. The IUPAC is the accepted system for chemical standards of nomenclature, measurements, and atomic mass values.

(4) Write the equation for the preparation of mustard gas

Mustard gas is actually a high boiling liquid and has mustard like odour. It was used in World War I. It is a powerful vesicant, i.e. causes blisters. It can be prepared as follows:



Q.15) Define polymers

Polymerization is a process in which a small organic molecules combine together to form larger molecules. The substances so produced are called polymers
e.g. Polyethylene, Polyvinyl chloride (PVC)

Q.16) What is polymerization

Polymerization is a process in which a small molecules which are called monomers combine together to form larger molecules. The substances so produced are called polymers

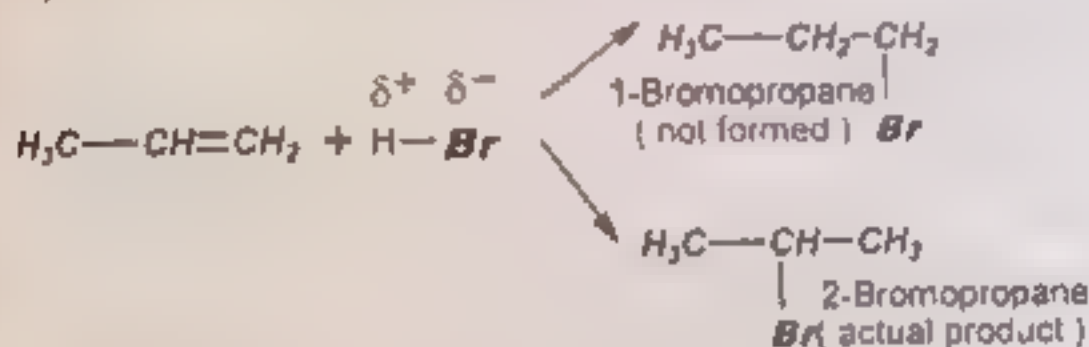


Q.17) What is Markownikoff's rule?

It states

In the addition of an unsymmetrical reagent to an unsymmetrical alkene, the negative part of the adding reagent goes to that carbon, constituting the double bond which has least number of hydrogen atoms

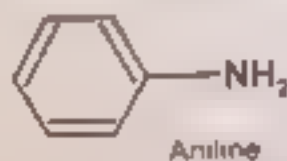
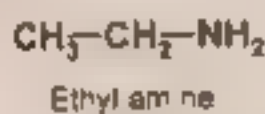
Example:



Q.18) What are amines

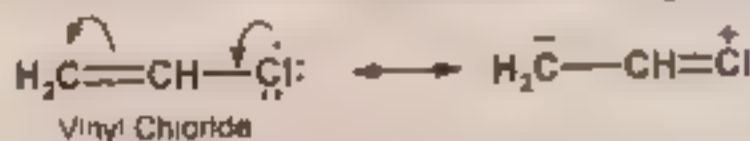
The organic compounds containing NH functional groups are called amines

Examples:



Q.19) Why halogen of vinyl chloride is inert?

Halogen atom has lone pair of electrons which come in resonance with the double bond of vinyl group



Thus the C to Cl bond develops some double bond character in it. Therefore it becomes very much difficult to displace this Cl atom by any nucleophile. Hence the halogen atom of vinyl chloride is inert in substitution reactions.

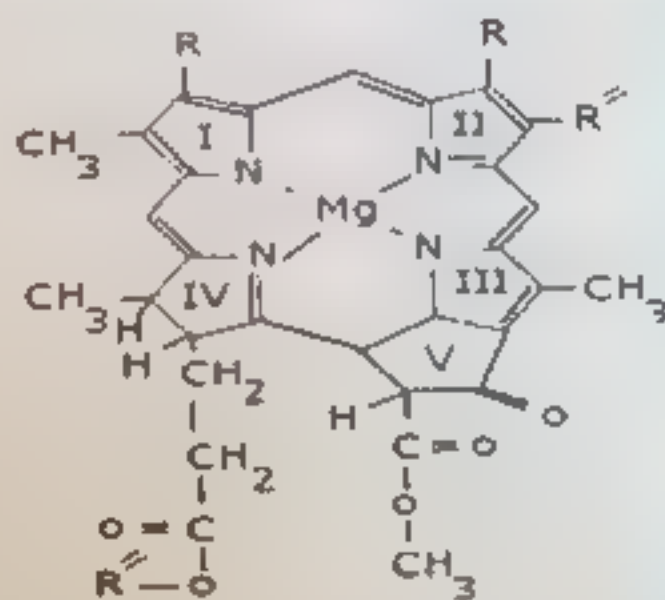
Do You Know?

- (i) CD's are made from vinyl chloride
- (ii) Ethyl chloride is used as a typical anesthetic
- (iii) Erupting volcanoes emit large quantities of halogens and halides

ORGANOMETALLIC COMPOUNDS IN MEDICINES

- ### COMPARISON BETWEEN HEMOGLOBIN AND CHLOROPHYLL

- (1) Hemoglobin is a protein in red blood cells.
- (2) Hemoglobin is the red pigment in the blood of all vertebrates and certain invertebrates.
- (3) Hemoglobin is involved in oxygen transport from the lungs to the tissues and from the tissues to the lungs.
- (4) Hemoglobin is involved in oxygen transport from the lungs to the tissues and from the tissues to the lungs.



Structure of Chlorophyll

KEY POINTS

- **Amines** are organic compounds containing nitrogen atom with one or more hydrogen atoms attached to it.
- **Primary amines** have one hydrogen atom attached to the nitrogen atom.
- **Secondary amines** have two hydrogen atoms attached to the nitrogen atom.
- **Tertiary amines** have three hydrogen atoms attached to the nitrogen atom.
- **Quaternary amines** have four hydrogen atoms attached to the nitrogen atom.
- **Amines** are classified into **aliphatic** and **aromatic** amines.
- **Aliphatic amines** are those in which the nitrogen atom is attached to an alkyl group.
- **Aromatic amines** are those in which the nitrogen atom is attached to an aryl group.
- **Primary amines** $R-NH_2$ or $Ar-NH_2$ undergo nucleophilic addition with aldehydes or ketones to give **carbinolamines** which then dehydrate to give substituted **imines**.
- **Primary alkyl or aryl amines** yield **diazonium salts**.

EXERCISE

Q1: Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

- (i) In primary alkyl halides, the halogen atom is attached to a carbon which is further attached to how many carbon atoms;
 (a) Two (b) Three (c) One (d) Four
- (ii) S_N2 reactions can be best carried out with;
 (a) Primary alkyl halides (b) Secondary alkyl halides (c) Tertiary alkyl halides (d) All the three
- (iii) For which mechanisms, the first step involved is the same;
 (a) E_1 and E_2 (b) E_2 and SN_1 (c) E_1 and SN_1 (d) E_1 and SN_2
- (iv) The rate of E_1 reaction depends upon;
 (a) the concentration of substrate (b) the concentration of nucleophile
 (c) the concentration of substrate as well as nucleophile (d) None of the above
- (v) Alkyl halides are considered to be very reactive compounds towards nucleophiles, because;
 (a) they have an electrophilic carbon
 (b) they have an electrophilic carbon and a good leaving group
 (c) they have an electrophilic carbon and a bad leaving group
 (d) they have a nucleophilic carbon and a good leaving group
- (vi) Which one of the following is not a nucleophile;
 (a) H_2O (b) H_2S (c) BF_3 (d) NH_3
- (vii) Double bond is formed as a result of;
 (a) Substitution reactions (b) Elimination reactions
 (c) Addition reactions (d) Rearrangement reactions
- (viii) Which of the following alkyl halides cannot be formed by direct reaction of alkanes with halogen;
 (a) RBr (b) RCI (c) RF (d) RI
- (ix) CH_3CH_2Br on treatment with alc. KOH gives;
 (a) Propanal (b) Propene (c) Propane (d) None
- (x) Grignard's reagent gives alkanes with;
 (a) Water (b) Ethylamine (c) Ethanol (d) All of these
- (xi) Action of alkyl halides with Na metal yield;
 (a) Alkanes (b) Alcohols (c) Alkenes (d) Phenols
- (xii) Alkyl halides react with excess of ammonia to give;
 (a) 1° amine (b) 2° amine (c) 3° amine (d) All
- (xiii) Among the alkyl halides the primary alkyl halides always follow the mechanism;
 (a) SN_1 (b) SN_2 (c) SN (d) SN
- (xiv) Grignard's reagent on treatment with chloramines gives;
 (a) Acetamide (b) Primary amine (c) Secondary amine (d) Tertiary amine
- (xv) Nucleophilic addition of a primary amine giving;
 (a) Imine (b) urea (c) ammonia (d) Nitrobenzene

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

(i) Ans: (c) One

By definition the primary carbon atom is directly attached to one carbon atom. e.g. in CH_3-CH_2-Br the carbon atom attached to Br is the primary carbon atom.

(ii) Ans: (a) Primary alkyl halides

Since primary alkyl halides have less steric hindrance the nucleophile can easily attack and the reaction leaves in one step. Such type of reaction is called S_N2 .

200

(iii) Ans: (d) E1 and S_N2 - *second order reaction*

(iv) Ans: (a) the concentration of substrate

CH₃

CH₃

CH₃

(v) Ans: (b) they form an electrophilic complex and a good leaving group

(vi) Ans: (c) BF₃

(vii) Ans: (b) Elimination reactions -

(viii) Ans: (d) E1

(ix) Ans: (b) Propene

(x) Ans: (d) All of these

(xi) Ans: (a) Alkanes

(xii) Ans: (d) all

(xiii) Ans: (b) S_N2

(xiv) Ans: (a) 1°-amine

(xv) Ans: (a) imine

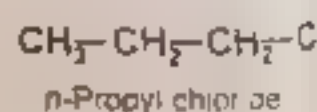
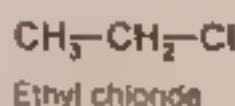
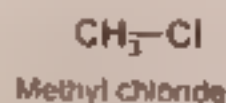
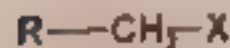
Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

(i) What are primary secondary and tertiary alkyl halides?

(i) Primary Alkyl Halides

Alkyl halide in which halogen atom is attached with primary carbon are called primary halides

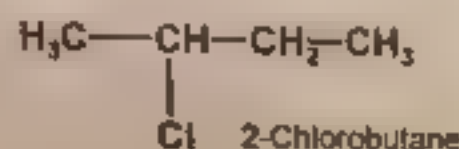
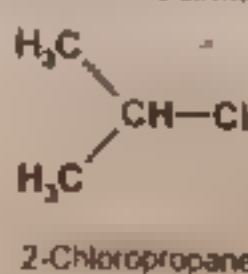
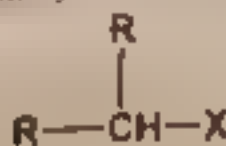
A primary C atom is attached to one or no carbon atom is called a primary C atom



(ii) Secondary Alkyl Halides

Alkyl halide in which halogen atom is attached with a secondary carbon atom is called secondary alkyl

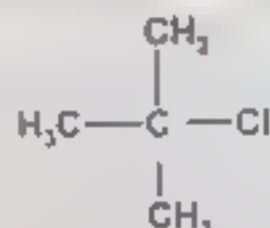
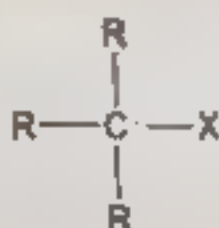
A secondary C atom is attached to two C atoms simultaneously is called a secondary C atom



(H) Tertiary Alkyl Halides:

Alkyl halides, in which halogen atom is attached to a tertiary carbon is called tertiary alkyl halide.

A tertiary C-atom is attached to three C-atoms simultaneously, is called tertiary carbon.

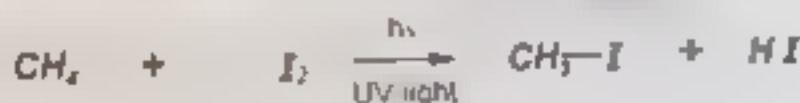


2-Chloro-2-methylpropane

(ii) Why alkyl iodides cannot be prepared by directly heating iodine with alkane?

The alkyl iodides cannot be obtained directly by treating alkanes with iodine.

It is because when an alkane reacts with iodine alkyl iodide and HI are produced. The HI is a strong reducing agent. So it reduces the product alkyl iodide back to the original alkane.



(iii) What are Nucleophilic substitution reactions or S_N reaction?

The reaction in which a nucleophile replaces another atom or a group of atom already present in a molecule are called nucleophilic substitution reactions.

General process of S_N reactions is



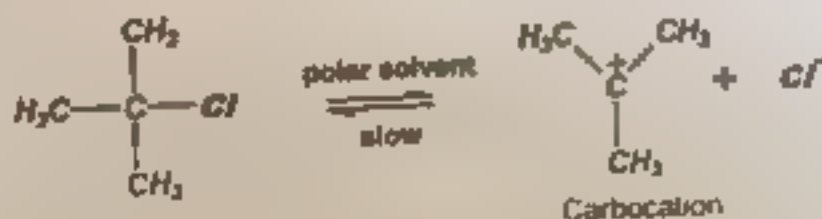
(iv) Tertiary alkyl halides show $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ reactions mostly, why?

In tertiary alkyl halides, the tertiary carbon atom is surrounded by bulky alkyl groups. Therefore, it is difficult for a nucleophile to reach this carbon. Hence, $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ reaction cannot occur with tertiary alkyl halides.

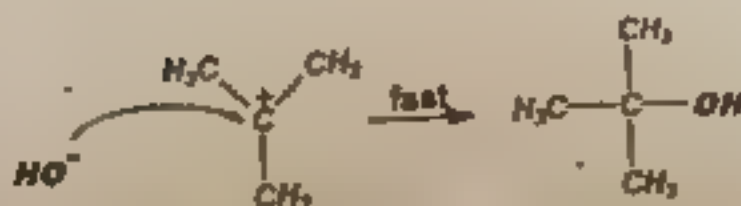
The tertiary alkyl halides first undergo ionization. During this process leaving group leaves and the tertiary carbon becomes sp^2 hybridized with angle 120° . Thus, nucleophile easily attacks the tertiary carbon atom.

Therefore, $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ reaction occurs with tertiary alkyl halides. The reaction complete in two steps.

Step - 1



Step - 2



UNIT 17 Alkyl Halides and Amines

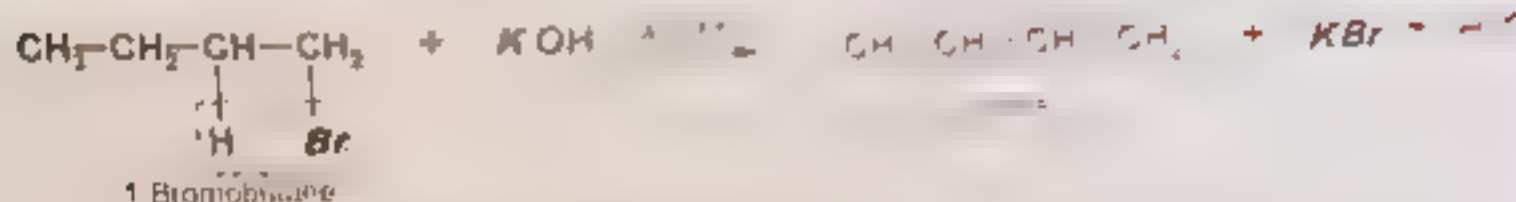
(a) What are elimination reactions?

The chemical reaction in which two groups are removed from a molecule is called an elimination reaction.

When β hydrogen is eliminated it

Examples:

Alkyl halides on heating with a



(ii) Which factor decides the reactivity of alkyl halides?

There are two main factors which

(i) Bond Polarity

The molecule of alkyl halide is polarized due to the difference in electronegativity between carbon and halogen. Hence carbon acquires partial positive charge and halogen acquires partial negative charge. Carbon is electrophilic in character which can be replaced by electrophiles.

(ii) Bond Energy

Experiments have shown that the bond energy of C-X bond is the most important factor in determining the reactivity of alkyl halides, and not the polarity of the molecule.

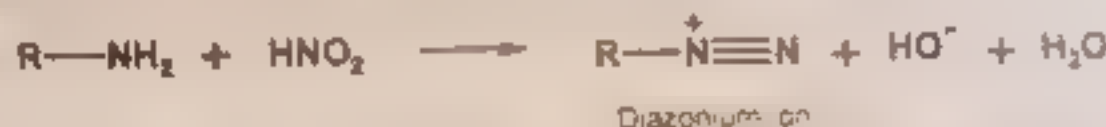
A study of bond energies of C-X bond shows that C-F bond is the strongest.

So the overall order of reactivity of alkyl halides is

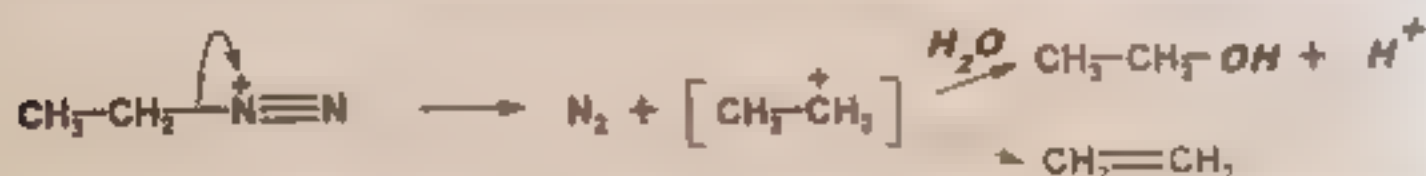


(iii) What are the diazonium salts?

When amines react with nitrous acid, diazonium compounds are formed.



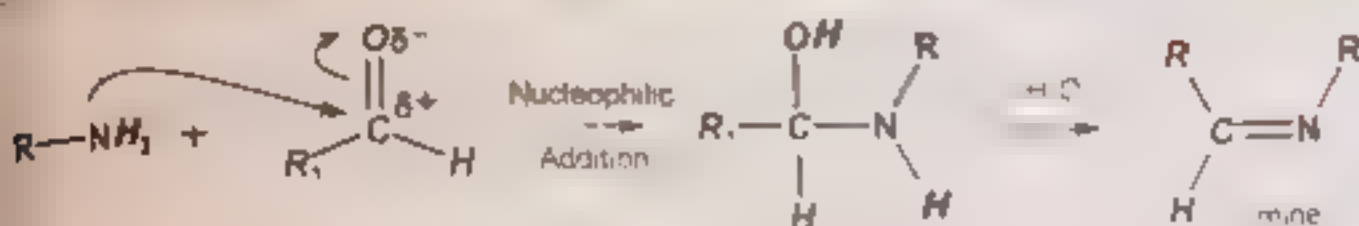
The diazonium group, group is unstable. In the case of the ethyldiazonium ion



When the diazonium group is attached to a benzene ring, the ion is stabilized to some extent by the delocalization of the positive charge over the ring. The benzenediazonium ion is therefore much more stable than aliphatic. However, it is unstable and decomposes readily above 10°C.



(iii) How can nucleophilic addition of a primary amine giving an imine?

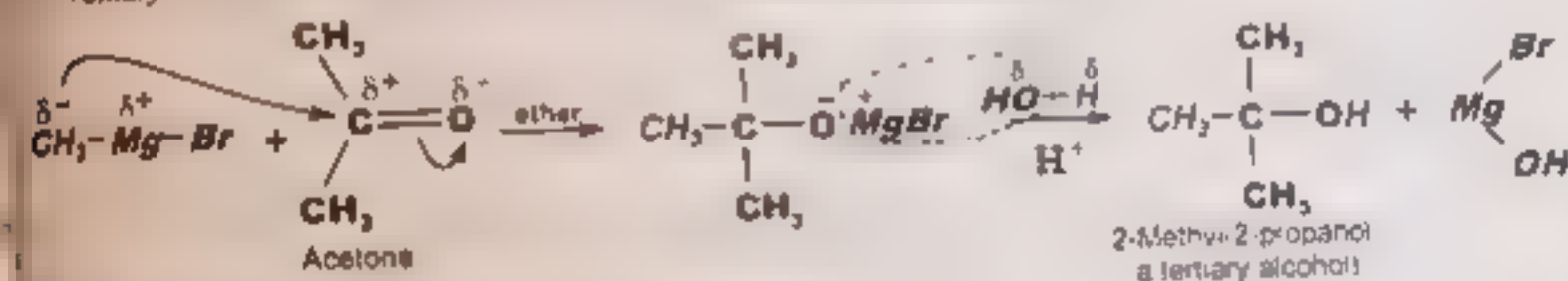


(ix) Amines are more basic than analogous alcohols why?

Amines may act as bases towards acids. This is because they have a lone pair of electrons on the nitrogen atom which is more available for donation than the lone pairs on the oxygen atom. These lone pairs are more available for donation because the nitrogen atom is less electronegative than the oxygen atom. Hence, neither of these two is a good base, but amines are better bases than alcohols.

(x) How tertiary alcohols are obtained from $R-Mg-X$?

Tertiary alcohols are obtained by the reaction of $R-Mg-X$ with ketones e.g.



(13) Give detailed answers for the following questions.

(i) Discuss the reactivity of alkyl halides
Page 226

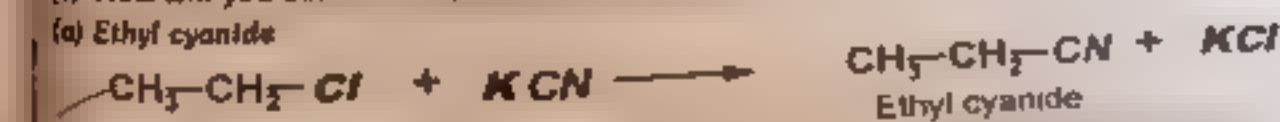
(ii) Give three methods for the preparation of alkyl halides
Page 226

(iii) Explain in detail S_N1 and S_N2 reactions with mechanism
Page 231

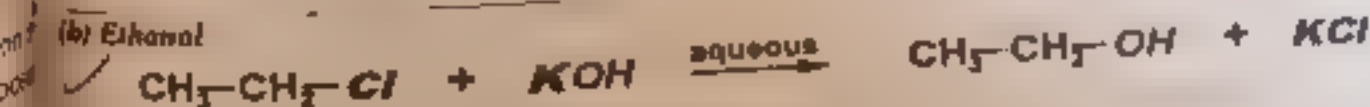
(iv) What are β -elimination reactions? Explain them with detail
Page 234

(v) How will you convert ethyl chloride to the

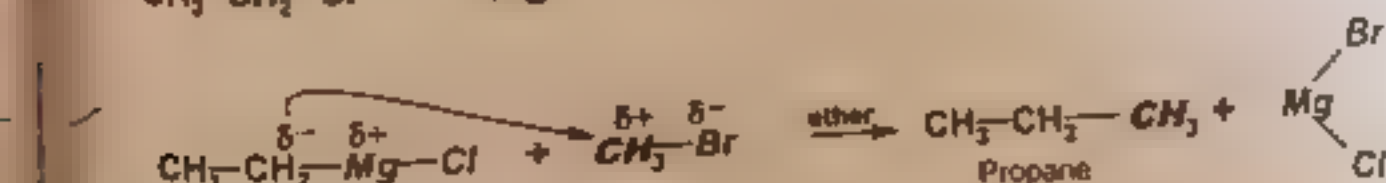
(a) Ethyl cyanide



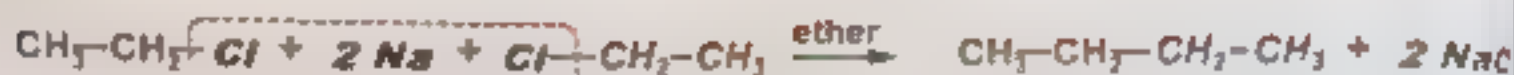
(b) Ethanol



(c) Propane



(d) n Butane



(d) Tetraethyl lead



(vi) Discuss the preparation and reactivity of Grignard's reagent

Page 246

(vii) What are the amines? Give its nomenclature

Page 244

(viii) What are the main features which increase the basicity of amine?

Page 250

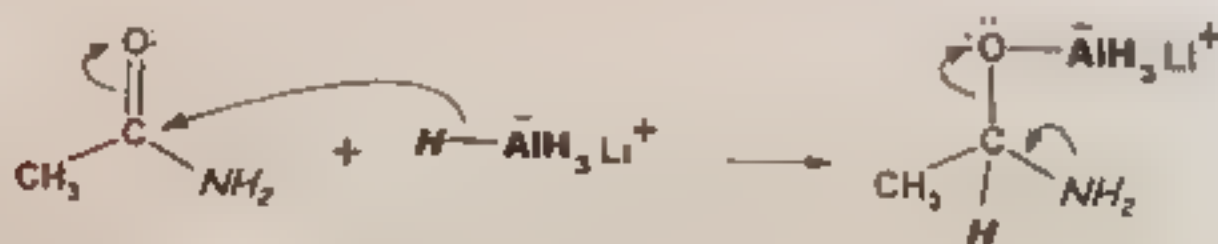
(ix) Amides are reduced by LiAlH_4 . Give mechanism.

Reaction.



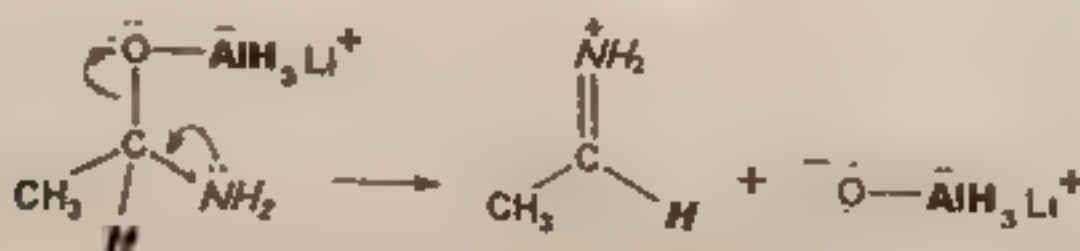
Mechanism

- The nucleophilic H from the hydride reagent adds to the electrophilic C in the polar carbonyl of the amide
- The electrons from the $\text{C}=\text{O}$ move to the electronegative O creating an intermediate metal alkoxide complex



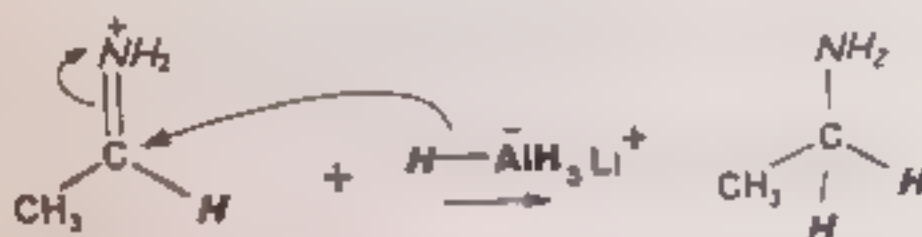
Step 2:

- The tetrahedral intermediate collapses and displaces the O as part of a metal alkoxide leaving group
- This produces a highly reactive iminium ion intermediate



Step 3:

- The nucleophilic H from the hydride reagent adds to the electrophilic C in the iminium system.
- The π -electrons from the $C=N$ move to the cationic N to neutralize the charge. Thus amine is produced.

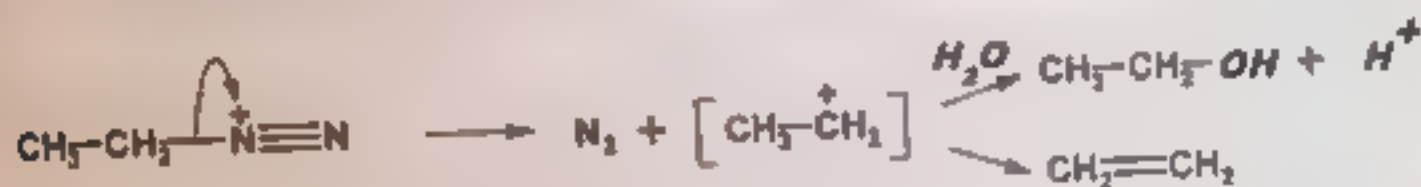


(x) What are the diazonium salts? How they can be prepared? Give their reactions?

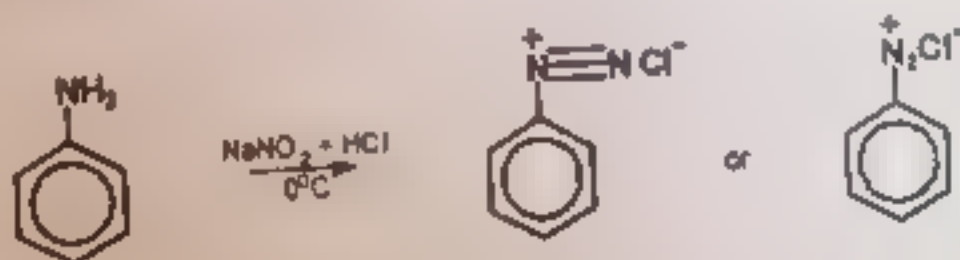
When amines react with nitrous acid, diazonium compounds are formed.



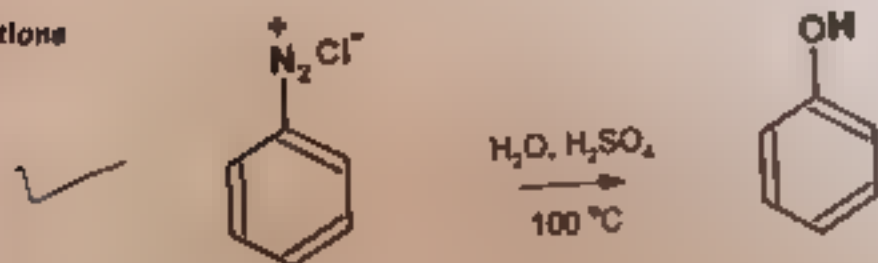
The diazonium group is rather unstable. In the case of the ethyl diazonium ion, it decomposes at once.



When the $\text{N}^+ \equiv \text{N}$ group is attached to a benzene ring, the ion is stabilized to some extent by the delocalized electron of the ring. The benzenediazonium ion is therefore much more stable than aliphatic. However, it also decomposes readily above 10°C .



Reactions



TEST YOUR SKILLS

Mark: 65

Time: 20 Minutes

Marks: 17

Note: Over writing, erasing, crossing using red pencil will result in loss of marks

Q1. Circle the correct option i.e. A B C D. Each part carries one mark.

- (i) In $\text{CH}_3\text{COCH}_3 + \text{CH}_3\text{MgI} \longrightarrow \text{Intermediate} \longrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow$ This is
A. CH_3OH B. $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ C. CH_3CN D. Tertiary butyl alcohol
- (ii) Which reagent gives the following reaction?
A. $\text{HCl} + \text{Zn}$ B. NaCl
- (iii) Treatment of an alkyl halide with NaOH gives
A. Tertiary alcohol B. Secondary alcohol C. Primary alcohol D. Tertiary ammonium chloride
- (iv) Alkyl fluorides are less reactive than alkyl chlorides, bromides and iodides.
A. high bond energy B. low bond energy C. high electronegativity D. low electronegativity
- (v) For the reaction $\text{R}_1\text{X} + \text{R}_2\text{Y} \longrightarrow \text{R}_1\text{Y} + \text{R}_2\text{X}$
The order of reactivity is
A. $\text{HBr} > \text{HI} > \text{HF}$ B. $\text{HI} > \text{HBr} > \text{HCl}$ C. $\text{HCl} > \text{HBr} > \text{HI}$ D. $\text{HF} > \text{HCl} > \text{HBr}$
- (vi) When alkyl iodide reacts with NaOH , it gives
A. 2-butanone B. 1-butanol C. 2-butanol D. 1-butene
- (vii) Grignard reagent is
A. Organic compound B. Organo-magnesium compounds C. Organometallic compounds D. Inorganic compound
- (viii) Which one of the following is an electrophile?
A. NH_3 B. H_2O C. Cl_2 D. BF_3
- (ix) What is shape of carbocation?
A. Linear B. Pyramidal C. planar D. Tetrahedral
- (x) Double bond is formed as result of
A. Substitution reaction B. Elimination reactions C. Addition reactions D. Reaction with H_2
- (xi) The common name of 2-methyl-2-chloropropane is
A. Isobutyl chloride B. tert-butyl chloride C. sec-butyl chloride D. n-butyl chloride
- (xii) E2 reaction obeys
A. First order kinetics B. Second order kinetics C. Third order kinetics D. Zero order kinetics
- (xiii) Which of the following alkyl halides will not be formed by the reaction of alkenes with halogen?
A. RBr B. RCI C. RF D. RI
- (xiv) $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{Br}$ on treatment with alc. KOH gives
A. Propanal B. Propene C. Propane D. None
- (xv) Grignard's reagent gives alkane with
A. Water B. Ethylamine C. Ethanol D. all of these
- (xvi) Action of alkyl halides with Na metal yield
A. Alkanes B. Alcohols C. Alkenes D. Phenols

Time: 2-35 Hours

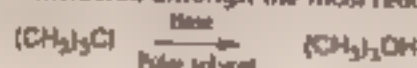
SUBJECTIVE

Total Marks Section B and C: 68

Section - B (Marks 42) (14 \times 3 = 42)

Q2. Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not exceed 5 to 6 lines

(i) Alkyl halides are considered amongst the most reactive class of organic compounds. Consider the equation



- a. Suggest the name and mechanism involved for the above conversion. (1)
- b. What will happen to the configuration of alkyl halide during the process? (1)
- c. Write rate equation for this reaction. (1)
- (ii) a. How does nature of alkyl group change when alkyl halide is converted into Grignard's reagent? (1)
- b. Why is the dry ether necessary for the preparation of Grignard's reagent? (1)
- c. How does the primary alcohol produce when ethylene oxide reacts with Grignard's reagent? (1)
- (iii) How a Grignard Reagent used for the preparation of alkanes? Give any three examples with reaction.

- (vi) a. Write two methods for the preparation of alkyl halides. 02
b. What are primary secondary and tertiary alkyl halides? 02
- (vii) a. Why alkyl iodides cannot be prepared by reaction of alkyl halides with KI ? 02
b. Thionyl chloride SOCl_2 is the best reagent for the preparation of alkyl chlorides. 02
- (viii) a. How alkyl iodides are prepared? 02
b. Which factor decides the reactivity of alkyl halides? 02
c. Define an electrophile and a nucleophile. 02
- (ix) a. Explain the given order of reactivity of alkyl halides: 02
 $\text{R-I} > \text{R-Br} > \text{R-Cl} > \text{R-F}$
- (x) a. What products are formed when the following compounds are treated with EtMgBr ? 02
A. HCHO B. $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CO}$
b. Why Grignard's reagent is highly reactive? 02
- (xi) a. What are Nucleophile substitution reactions or S_N reactions? 02
b. Why primary alkyl halides always follow $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ mechanism? 01
c. Tertiary alkyl halides show $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ reactions mostly. Why? 01
- (xii) a. $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ reactions shows 2nd order kinetics, why? 02
b. Why the configuration of the product is inverted during $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ reaction? 02
c. Why there is 50% inversion and 50% retention in the product of $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ reaction? 02
- (xiii) a. Write down the reaction of t-butyl bromide with KOH in aqueous medium. 02
b. What are β -Elimination reactions? 01
- (xiv) a. What is Wurtz synthesis? 02
b. Why all reagents must be dry during the preparation of Grignard's reagent? 02
- (xv) a. Draw all the possible isomers of $\text{C}_4\text{H}_9\text{Cl}$ and classify them as primary, secondary, and tertiary. 03
b. How carboxylic acids are obtained from Grignard's reagent? 02
c. How tertiary alcohols are obtained from R-Mg-X ? 02
d. How tetraethyl lead is obtained from alkyl halides? 02
- (xvi) a. What is a carbocation? Write two methods for its generation? 02
b. How alkyl halides can be prepared from alkenes? 02
- (xvii) a. Write mechanism of $\text{E}2$ reaction. 01
b. Give two methods to produce primary alcohols from Grignard's reagent. 02
- (xviii) a. Differentiate between $\text{E}1$ and $\text{E}2$ reaction. 02
b. How may Grignard's reagent may be prepared in laboratory? 02
- (xix) a. Iodide ion is both a good leaving group and a good nucleophile. Explain why? 02
b. How may PCl_5 be used for the preparation of alkyl halides? 01
- (xx) a. How alkyl halides can be reduced to alkanes? 01
b. How alkenes may be converted into alkyl halides? 01
c. What is the effect of nature of alkyl group on the preparation of Grignard's reagent? 01

Section - C

Note: Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. (2 × 13 = 26)

- Q 3 a. Discuss the reactivity of alkyl halides. 04
b. Discuss classification of alkyl halides. 03
c. Chloroethene can be obtained from Ethene in the laboratory by the following route:
 $\text{CH}_2 = \text{CH}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{I}} \text{Cl-CH}_2 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{Cl} \xrightarrow{\text{II}} \text{CH}_2 = \text{CH} - \text{Cl}$
(i) Describe the conditions necessary for each of the reactions I and II. 02
(ii) Describe the steps in the mechanism of reaction I. 03

Q 4. Give names and structures of the following compounds.

Q 5. Draw the structure of the following compound.

2-bromo-3-chloro-4-methylpentane

Q 6. Draw the structure of the following compound.

2-bromo-3-chloro-4-methylpentane

Br



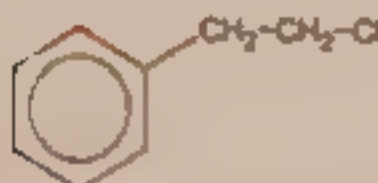
N⁺

Br



Br

CH₃



c. How ethylmagnesium bromide reacts with

(i) NH₃

(ii) Alcohols

(iii) CO₂

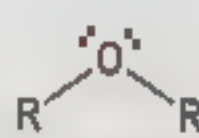
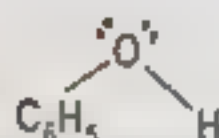
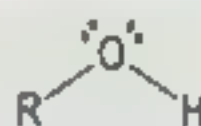
(iv) Aldehydes

(v) Acetone

05

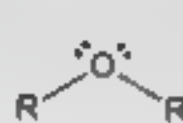
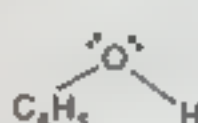
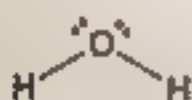
CHAPTER # 18

ALCOHOLS, PHENOLS AND ETHERS



INTRODUCTION

The structure of alcohols, phenols and ethers are as follows:



Alcohols and phenols both contain hydroxyl $-\text{OH}$ group attached to alkyl and phenyl groups, respectively. In ether both hydrogen atoms of water are replaced by alkyl or phenyl groups.

ALCOHOLS

The aliphatic organic compounds containing hydroxyl group $-\text{OH}$, as functional group are called alcohols.

Monohydric alcohols: Alcohols containing one $-\text{OH}$ group are called monohydric alcohols.

Polyhydric alcohols: The alcohols containing two or more hydroxyl groups are known as polyhydric alcohols.

Classification of Monohydric Alcohols.

Monohydric alcohols are classified into the following three families:

(i) Primary alcohols:

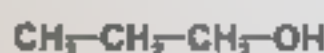
In these, carbon atom attached to OH group, is directly attached to one or no carbon atom.



Methanol



Ethanol



1-Propanol
(n-propyl alcohol)

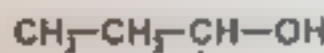
(ii) Secondary alcohols:

In these, carbon atom attached to OH group, is directly attached to two carbon atoms.



2-Propanol

(sec-Propyl alcohol)

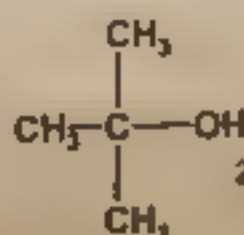


2-Butanol

(sec-Butyl alcohol)

(iii) Tertiary alcohols:

In these, carbon atom attached to OH group, is directly attached to three carbon atoms.



2-Methyl-2-propanol
(ter-Butyl alcohol)

NOMENCLATURE OF ALCOHOLS:

1. Common System of Naming

Examples



Methyl a.

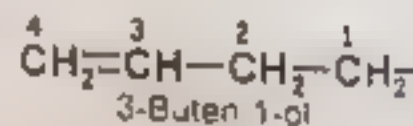
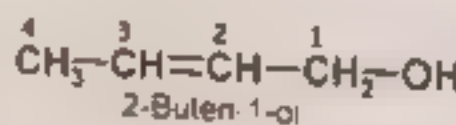
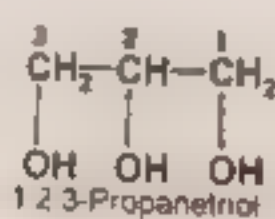
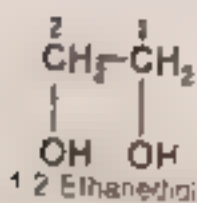
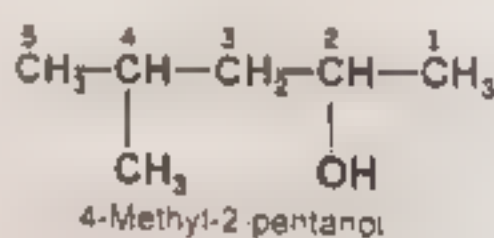
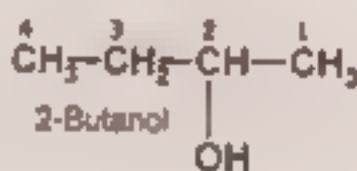
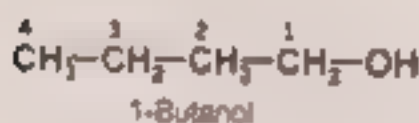


Benzyl a.

2. IUPAC System

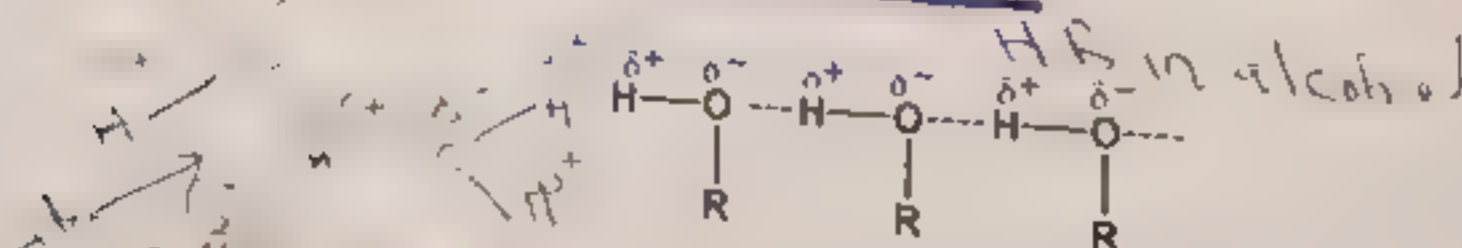
- The longest chain containing the hydroxyl group is selected as the parent hydrocarbon.
- The ending of the parent hydrocarbon is replaced by -ol.
- The carbon of the -OH group is numbered by placing the number of carbon to which -OH is attached as a suffix.
- The carbon chain bearing -OH group is numbered beginning from that end which would assign the lowest possible number to the carbon atom linked to the -OH group.
- The presence of more than one -OH groups is indicated by suffixes -diol, -triol, etc. and repeat the number of carbon atoms to which -OH groups are attached.
- In unsaturated alcohols, the hydroxyl group gets the lower number rather than unsaturation. e.g.

Examples



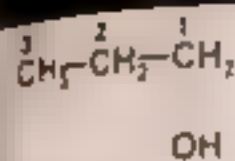
PHYSICAL PROPERTIES:

- Alcohol upto butanols are generally colorless liquids. These have characteristic sweet smell and bitter taste. They are readily soluble in water. The solubility of alcohols is due to hydrogen bonding which is significant in lower alcohols but decreases in higher alcohol.

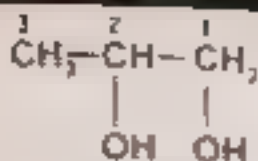


- Melting and boiling points of alcohols are higher than corresponding alkanes. It is due to hydrogen bonding which is present in alcohols but absent in alkanes.

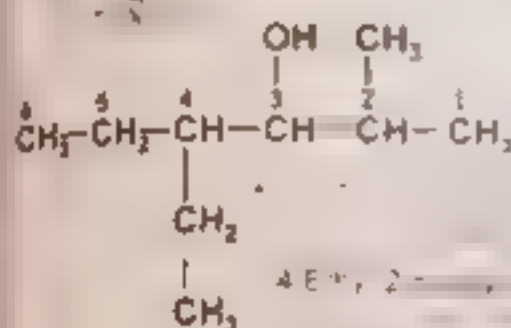
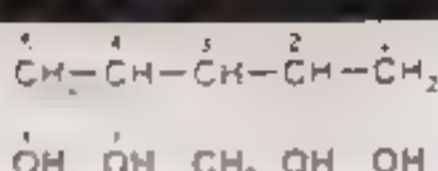
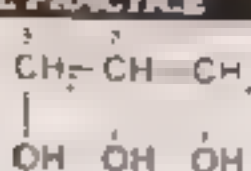
MORE PRACTICE



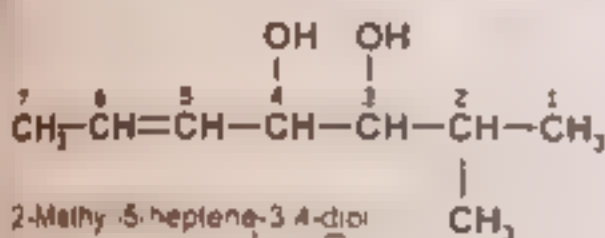
1-Propanol



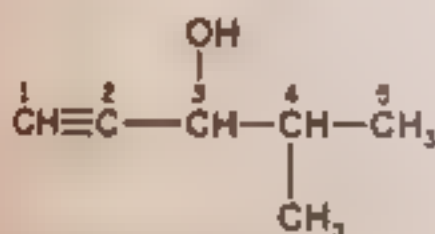
1,2-Propanediol



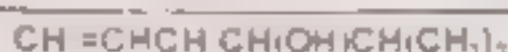
4-Ethyl-2-methyl-3-pentanol



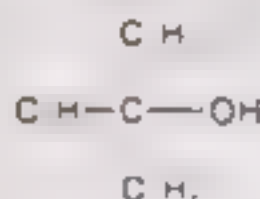
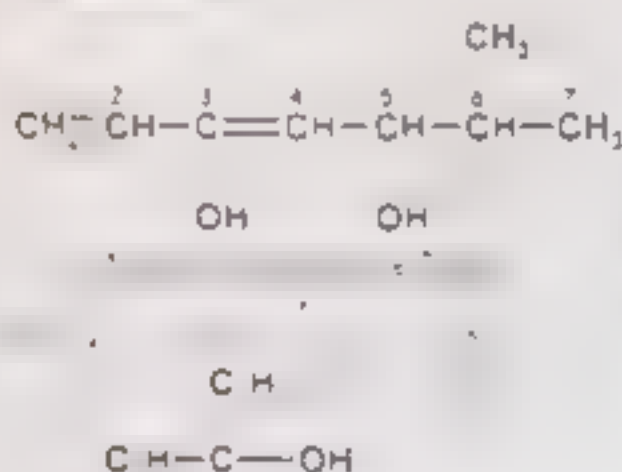
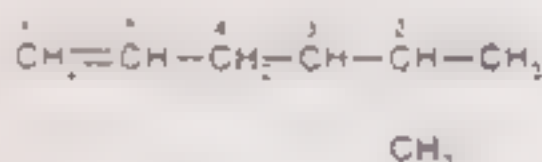
2-Methyl-5-heptene-3,4-diol



4-Methyl-1-pentyn-3-ol

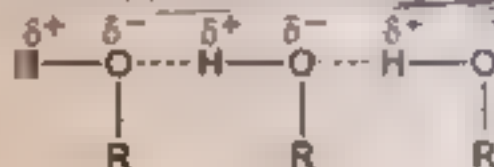


OH



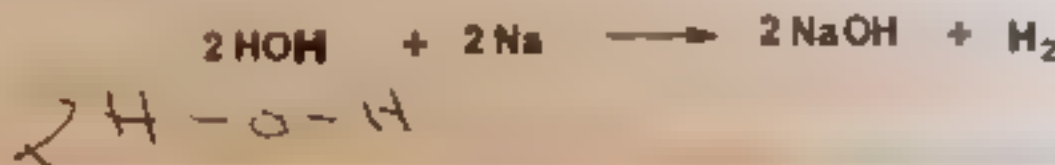
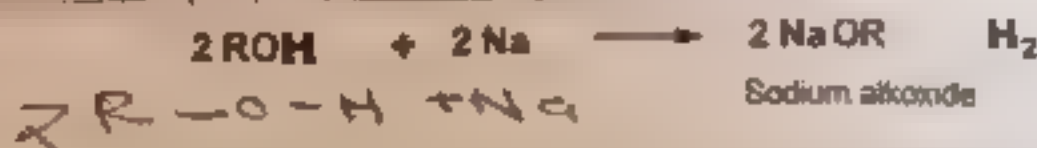
STRUCTURE:

- The alcohol functional group consists of an O atom bonded to an H atom and an R group.
- Both the C-O and the O-H bonds are polar due to the difference in electronegativity.



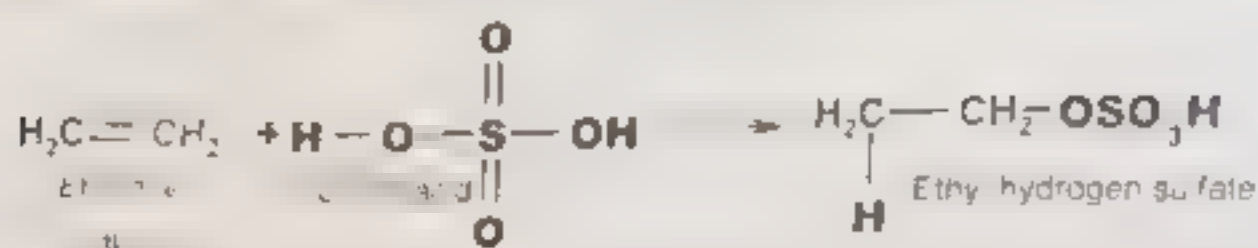
ACIDITY:

- Due to the electronegativity of the O atom, alcohols are weak acids.
- The anion derived by the deprotonation of an alcohol is the alkoxide ion, RO⁻.
- Alkoxides are important bases in organic chemistry.
- Alcohols react with Na or K like water to give the alkoxide.



2) HYDRATION OF ALKENES

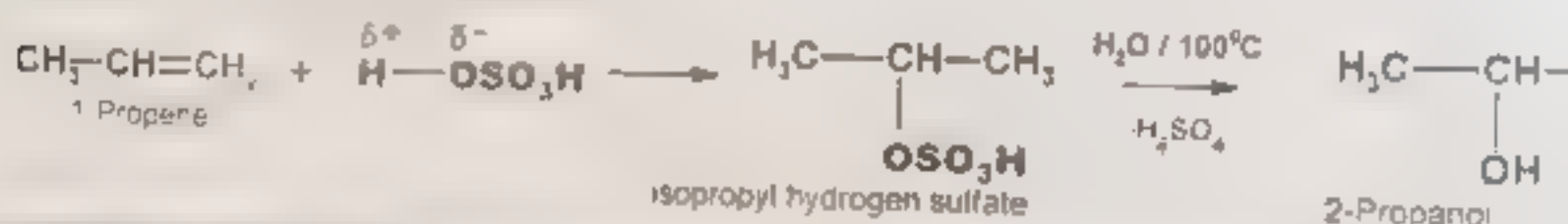
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[illegible]

On heating alkyl hydrogen sulphates are hydrolyzed to alcohols

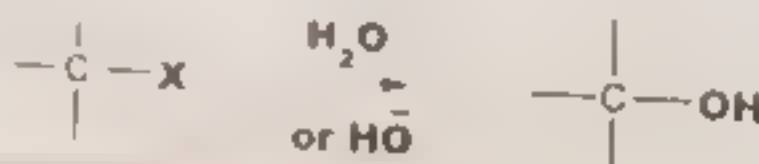


The reaction follows Arrhenius plot,



2) HYDROLYSIS OF ALKYL HALIDES

- Alkyl halides can be converted to alcohols using water or hydroxide as the nucleophile.



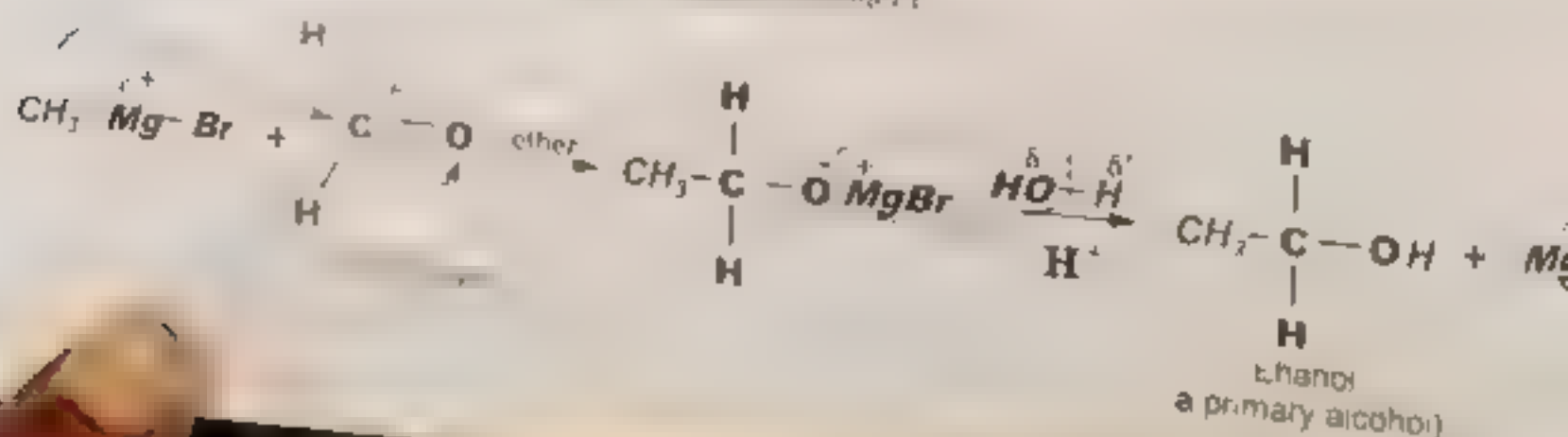
...distribution

Quin Quin 1 4 1 ... upward's reagent is used for the preparation of alcohols

REACTIONS OF PT-LOR RMGX WITH ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

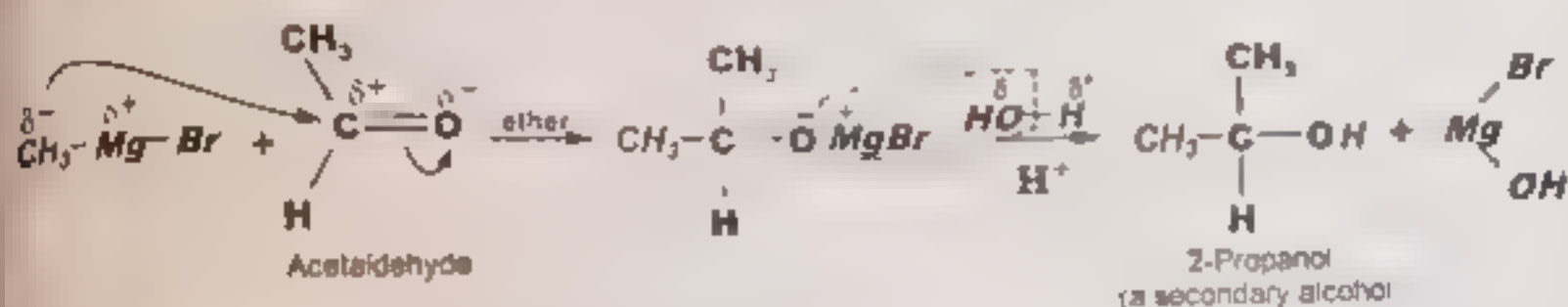
ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

(a) **Primary alcohol**
Formaldehyde.



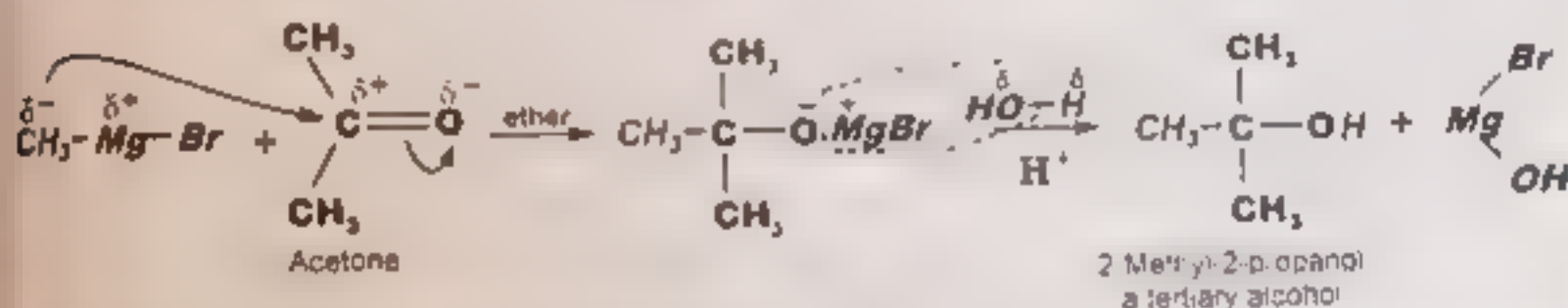
(b) Secondary Alcohols

All aldehydes except formaldehyde give secondary alcohols with Grignard's reagent.



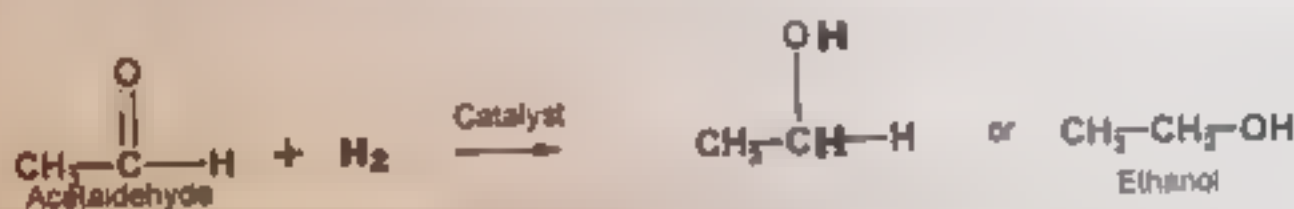
(c) Tertiary Alcohols

Ketones give tertiary alcohols with Grignard's reagent.



(4) REDUCTION OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

Reduction of aldehydes, ketones and carboxylic acid esters in the presence of Ni, Pd or Pt gives alcohols.

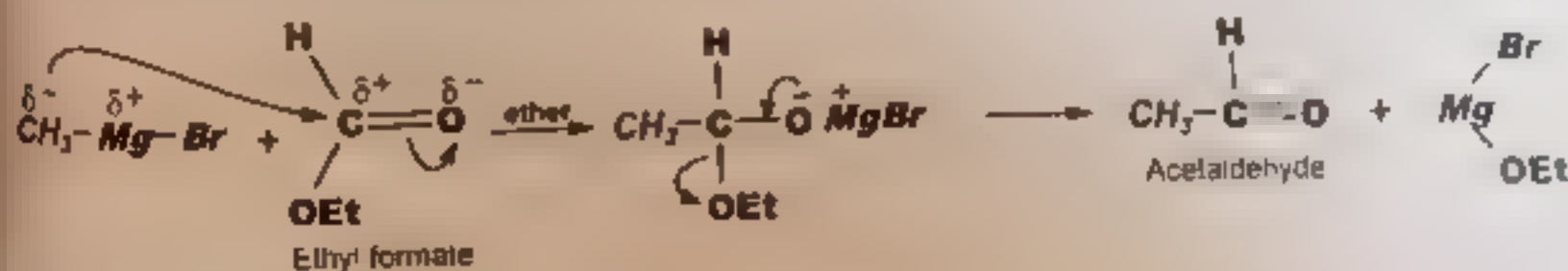


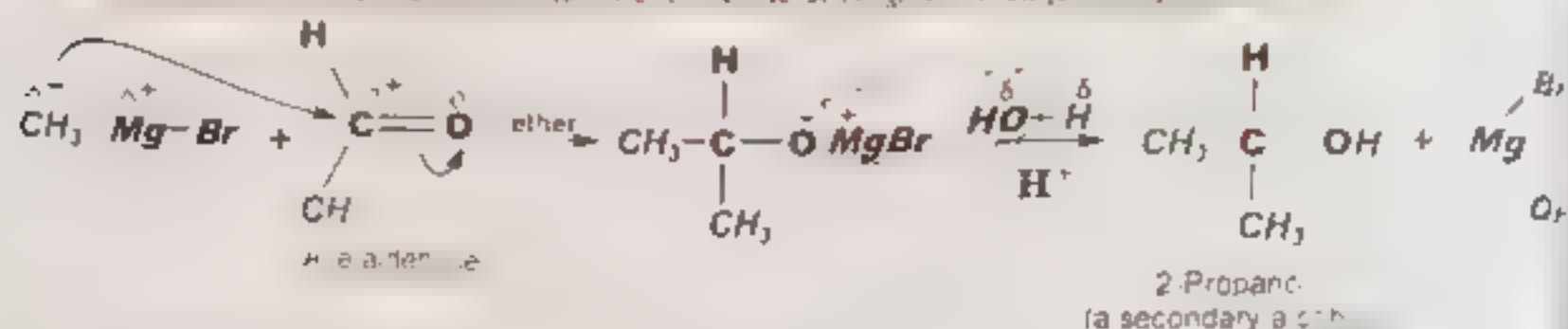
LiAlH_4 can also reduce carboxylic acids as well as aldehydes, ketones and ester.



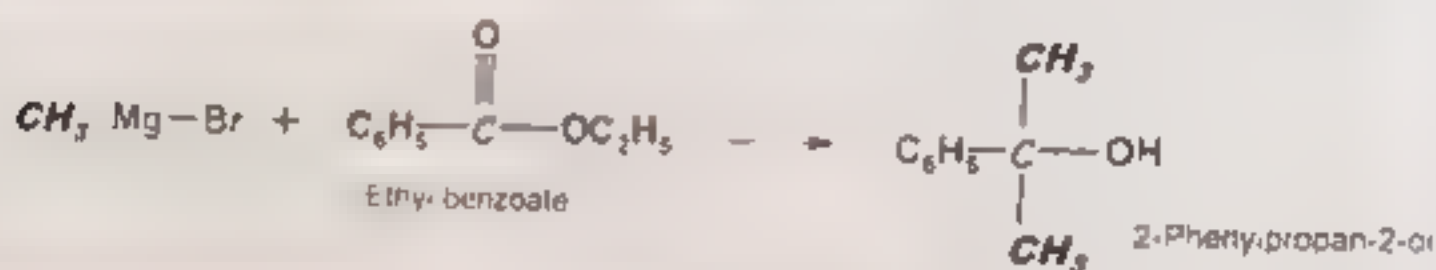
(5) REACTION OF RLi OR RMgX WITH ESTERS

Esters react with Grignard reagents to form alcohols.

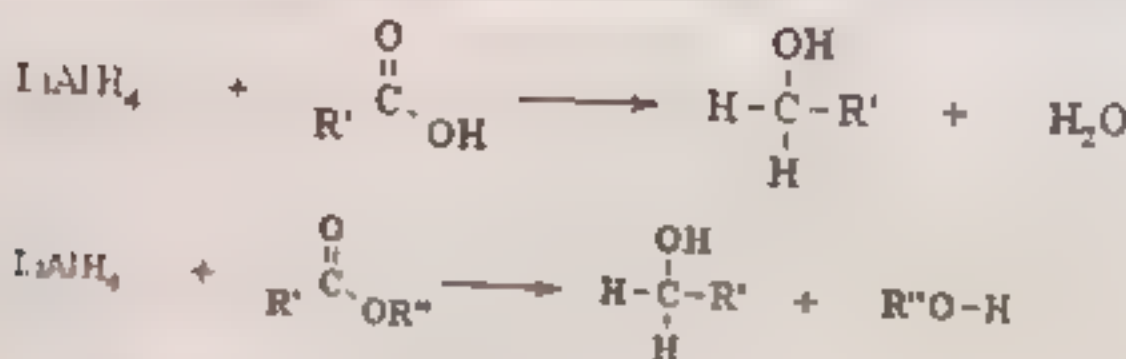




Similarly, other ketones also readily react with Grignard's Reagents.



(6) REDUCTION OF CARBOXYLIC ACIDS AND ESTERS



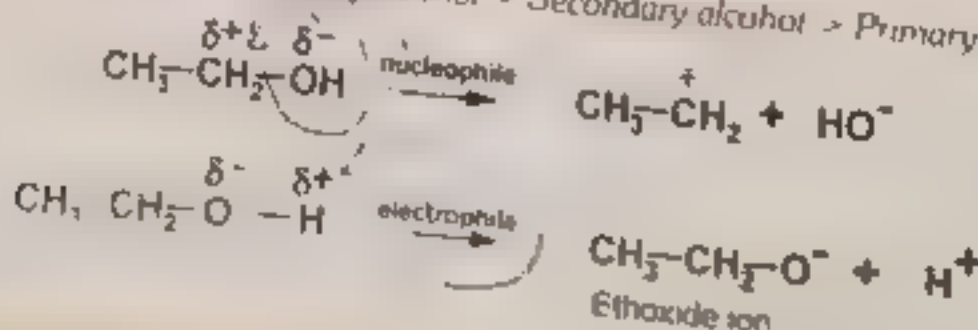
- Carboxylic acids and esters are less reactive to Nucleophiles than aldehydes or ketones. So, they can only be reduced by LiAlH_4 and NOT by the less reactive NaBH_4 .
- Each reaction requires that 2 hydrides be added to the carbonyl of acids or esters.

REACTIVITY:

- Alcohol reacts with other reagents due to the breaking of C-O and O-H bonds.
- Breaking of bonds depends upon the nature of the attacking reagent.
- If a nucleophile attacks, the C-O bond breaks.
- The order of reactivity of alcohols with respect to cleavage of C-O bond is:

Tertiary alcohol > Secondary alcohol > Primary alcohol
- If an electrophile attacks the O-H bond breaks.
- The order of reactivity of alcohols with respect to O-H bonds cleavage is:

Tertiary alcohol > Secondary alcohol > Primary alcohol



REACTIONS OF ALCOHOLS

(1) REACTION WITH HX

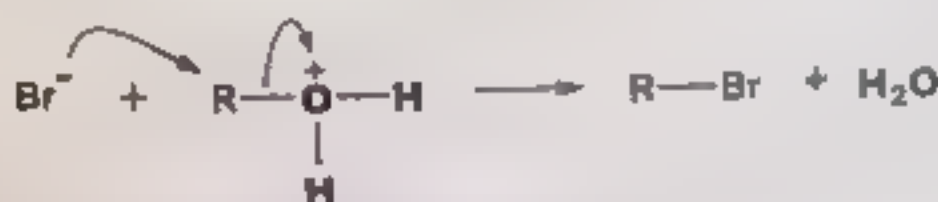
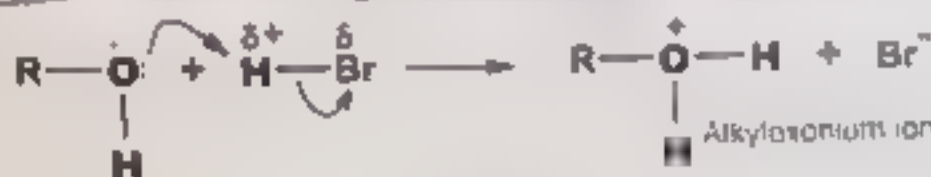
- Due to the presence of unshared electron pairs in the oxygen atom, alcohols react with halogen acids to form their respective alkyl halides.



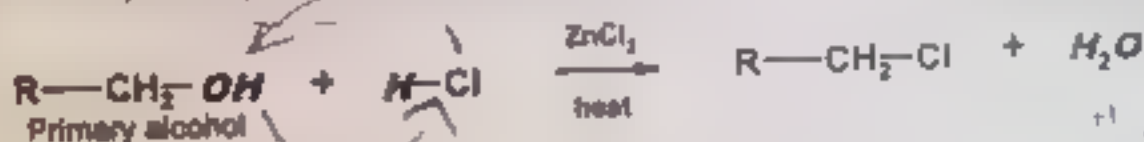
- The C-O bond in an alcohol is very slightly polarized. Therefore the following direct mechanism is not possible.



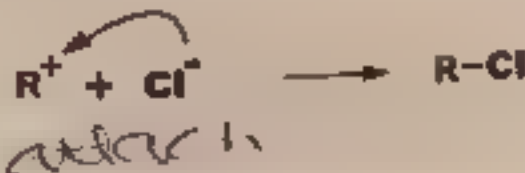
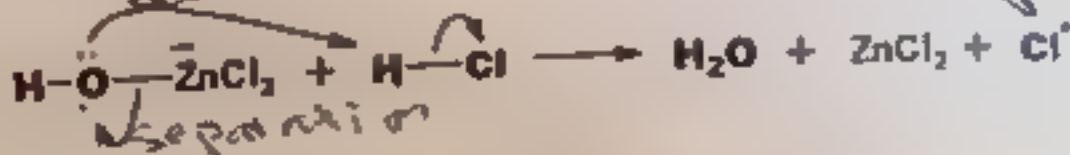
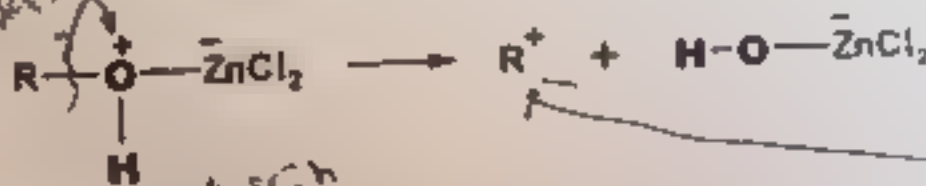
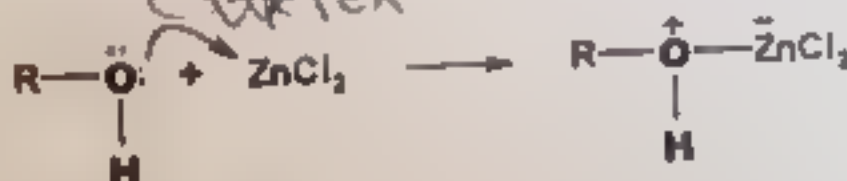
- In fact, the alcohol first acts as a base, it accepts proton from HX to form an oxonium ion. Now the C-O bond becomes highly polarized. Thus, the electrophilic carbon is easily attacked by a nucleophile to break C-O bond.



- The orders of reactivity of halogen acids $HI > HBr > HCl$.
- The orders of reactivity of alcohols is $ter > sec > prim$ -alcohol.
- HCl and prim-alcohol are the least reactive amongst halogen acids and alcohols respectively. Therefore they react only in the presence of a catalyst. A solution of $ZnCl_2$ in concentrated HCl is used as a catalyst.



Mechanism



Unit 10 Alcohols, Phenols and Ethers

II

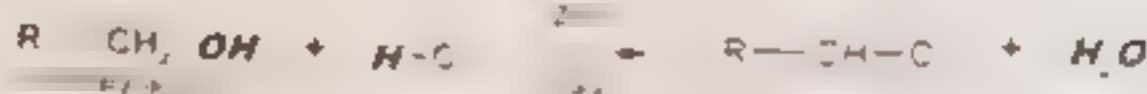
Exercise Q.3 How will you distinguish between

LUCAS TEST

i. $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$

ii. $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{Cl}$

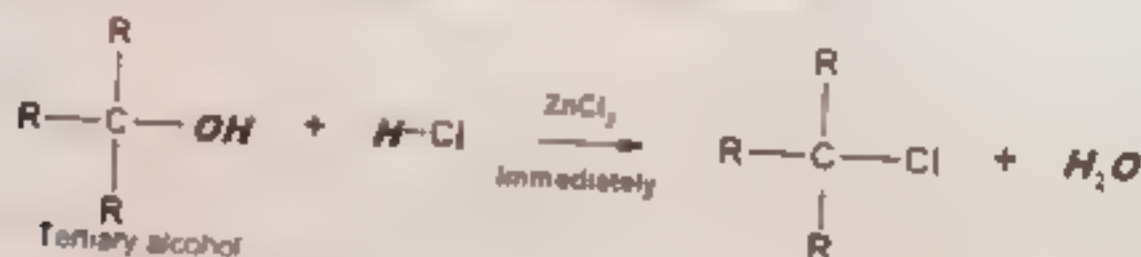
iii. $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{Br}$



(ii) Secondary alcohol form



(iii) Primary alcohol forms an insoluble pr



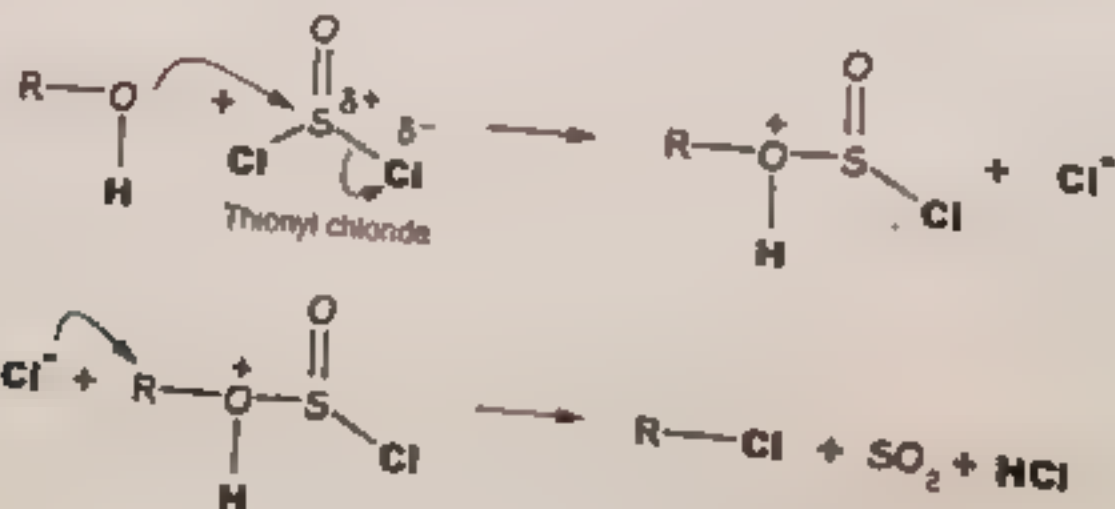
(2) REACTION WITH SOCl_2 , PX

(i) Thionylchloride (SOCl_2)

Alcohols react with thionylchloride to give alkyl chlorides

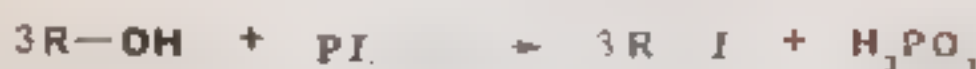


Mechanism



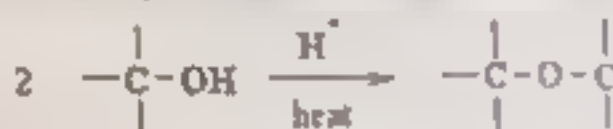
(ii) **Phosphorus Tribromide and Triiodide (PBr_3 and PI_3)**

Alkyl bromides and iodides are best prepared by this method.



3. ACID CATALYZED DEHYDRATION

Ethers are produced via acid-catalyzed dehydration.

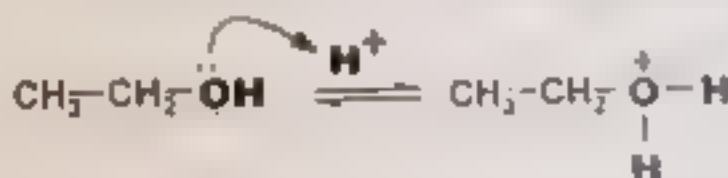


- Reagents are typically H_2SO_4 and heat
- This method is limited to **symmetrical** ethers of primary alcohols.
- The method is not suitable for unsymmetrical ethers.

MECHANISM

Step 1.

The lone pairs on the oxygen make it a Lewis base. So, it reacts with an acid base reaction. The alcohol oxygen is protonated to make a better leaving group (H_2O). This reaction is fast and reversible.



Step 2.

The O of the second alcohol molecule functions as the nucleophile (H_2O) by breaking the C-O bond. This forms an oxonium ion.



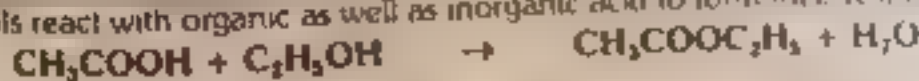
Step 3.

This is another acid-base reaction. The proton is removed by a second alcohol molecule. The alcohol ROH can also do this. Thus, the reaction is reversible.



14. PREPARATION OF ESTERS

- Alcohols react with organic as well as inorganic acid to form their esters.

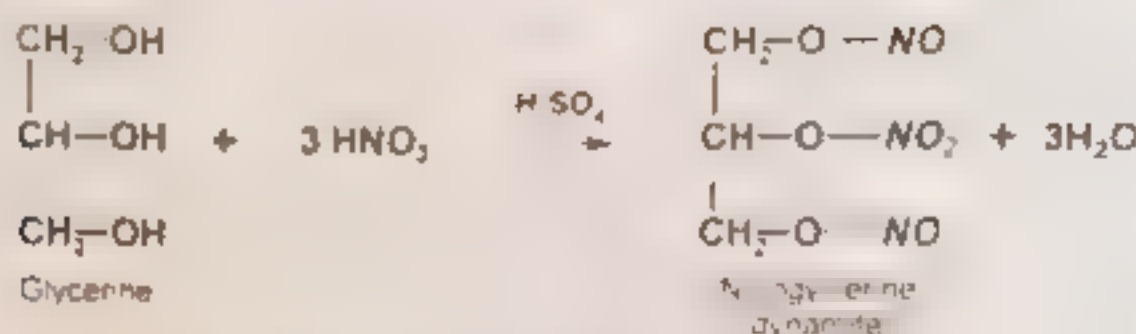


- Thus alkyl halides may also be called esters of halogen acids

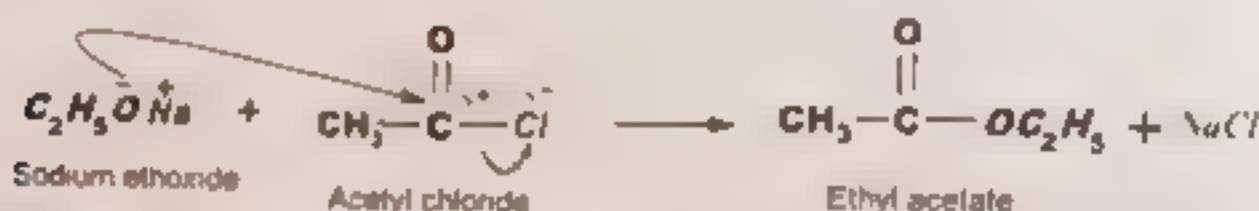


- Glycerine

or Glycerol, $\text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$



- Nitroglycerine is highly explosive and moulded into sticks Dynamite
- Esters are also formed by treating alcohols with acid chlorides

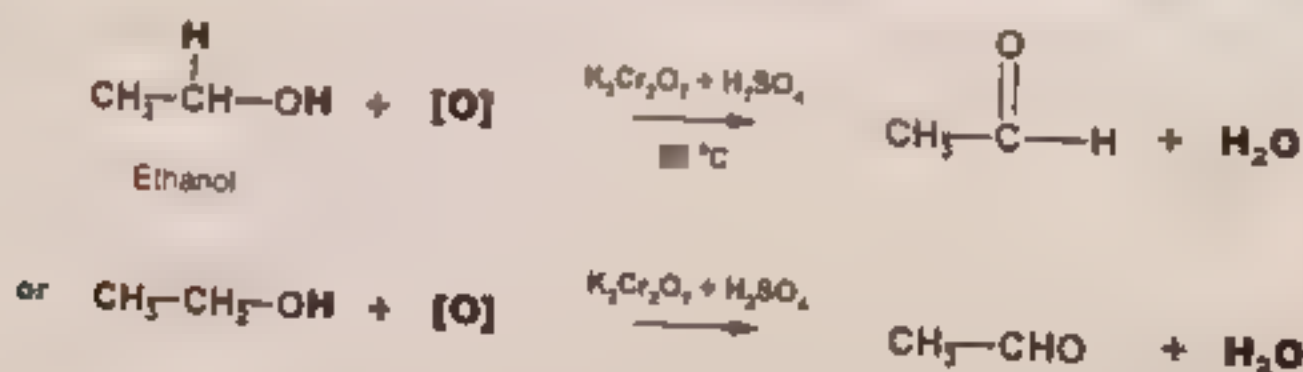


(5) OXIDATION

Alcohols are easily oxidized by alkaline KMnO_4 or $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7 + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ solutions to give different products

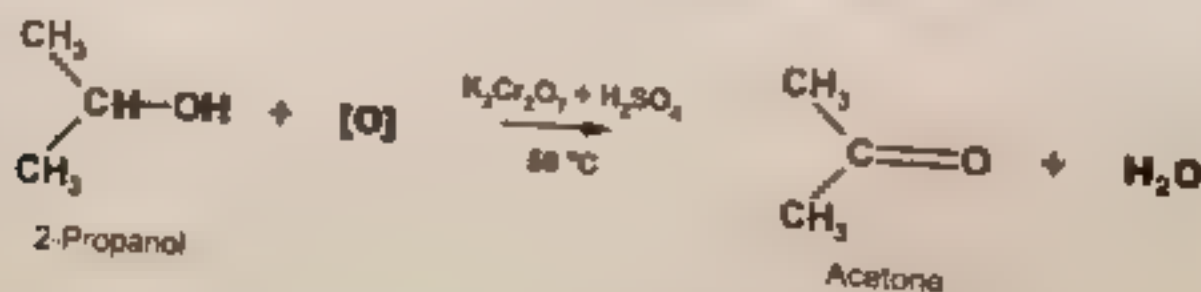
(i) Primary Alcohol:

A primary alcohol is first oxidized to an aldehyde which is further oxidized to a carboxylic acid



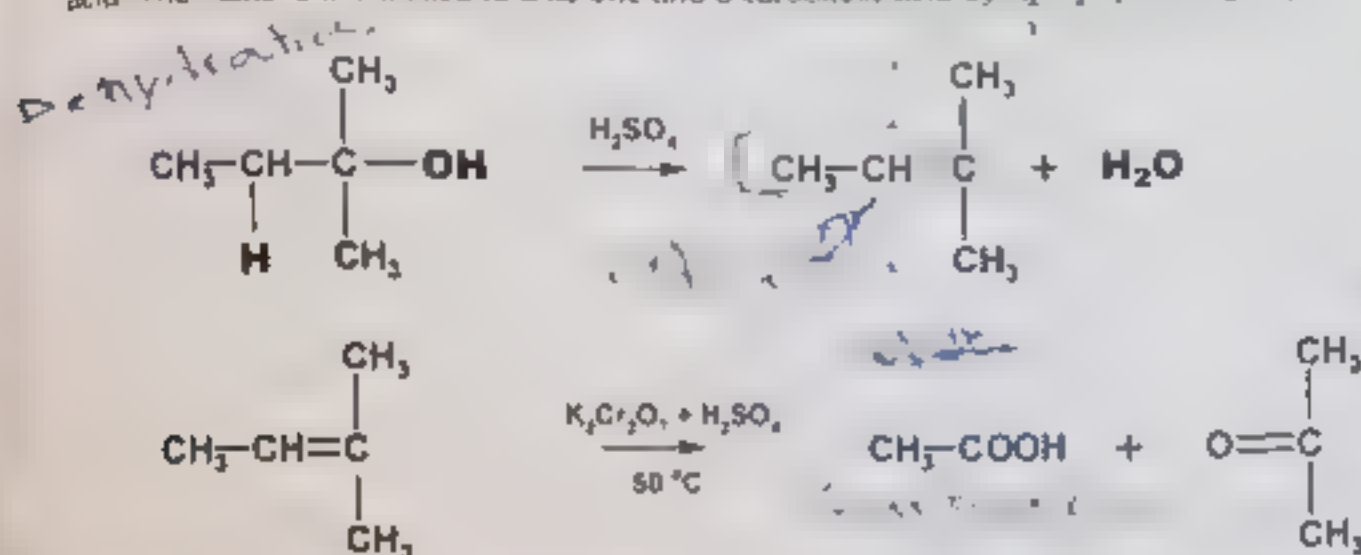
(ii) Secondary Alcohol

A secondary alcohol is oxidized to give a ketone which is not further oxidized



(iii) Tertiary Alcohol

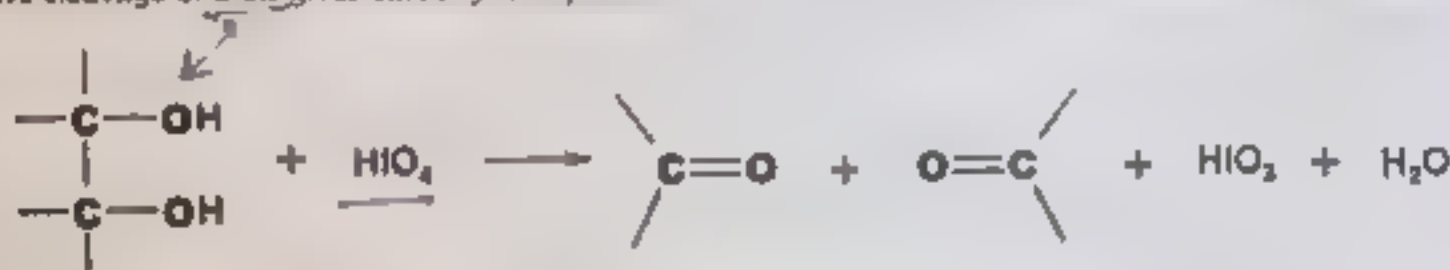
- A tertiary alcohol is not oxidized by alkaline KMnO_4 .
- When heated with a mixture of $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ and H_2SO_4 it is first dehydrated to an alkene in the presence of acid. Then alkene is oxidized to a ketone and a carboxylic acid by $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ and H_2SO_4 .



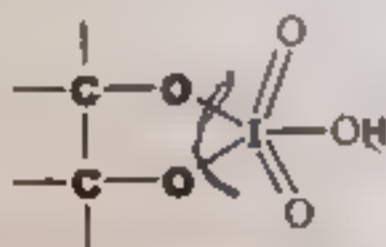
- Thus, each of the products contains lesser number of carbon atoms than the parent alcohol molecule.

5) CLEAVAGE OF 1,2-DIOLS

Oxidative cleavage of diols gives carbonyl compounds

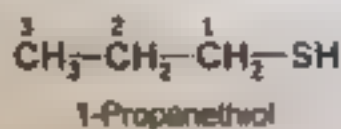
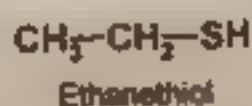


- 1,2- or vicinal diols are cleaved by periodic acid HIO_4 into two carbonyl compounds.
- The reaction is selective for 1,2-diols.
- This can be used as a functional group test for 1,2-diols.
- The products are determined by the substituents on the diol.
- The reaction occurs via the formation of a cyclic periodate ester.

THE SULFUR ANALOGUES (THIOLS, RSH)

NOMENCLATURE

- Thiols are the sulfur analogues of alcohols.
- These are named by adding the suffix **-thiol** to the name of corresponding alkanes.



- The rest of nomenclature (i.e. naming substituents etc.) is similar to alcohols.

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

STRUCTURE

- The S atom is bonded to a C atom and a H atom.
- The S-H bond is less polar than the C-S bond.
- The S-H bond is longer and weaker than the C-S bond.

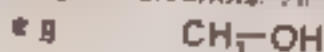
REACTIVITY

- Thiols are more reactive than alcohols.
- Thiols are also more reactive than alcohols.
- Thiols are readily oxidized to S-O systems rather than C=O.
- Thiols are commonly oxidized to disulfides, $R-S-S-R$.

QUICK QUIZ-1

(1) What are monohydric and polyhydric alcohols?

Monohydric alcohols: Alcohols containing one -OH group are called monohydric alcohols.

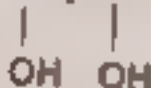
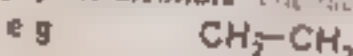


Methanol

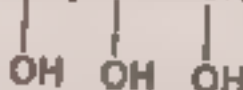


Ethanol

Polyhydric alcohols: The alcohols containing two or more hydroxyl groups are called polyhydric alcohols.



1,2-Ethanediol

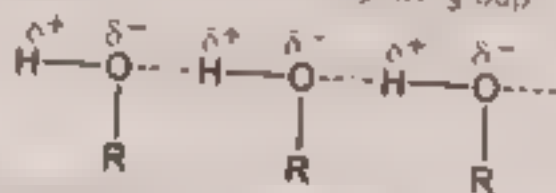


1,2,3-Propanetriol

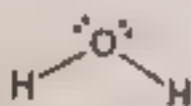
(2) Why some alcohols are readily soluble in water?

Small alcohols, e.g. methanol and ethanol are readily soluble in water.

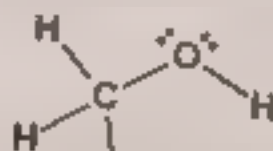
The solubility of alcohols is due to hydrogen bonding which is significant in lower alcohols but decreases in higher alcohols due to increase in non polar nature of alkyl (R) group.



(3) Write the structures of water and methyl alcohol.



Water



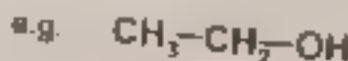
Methyl alcohol

(4) Write the formulas of primary, secondary and tertiary alcohols.

Primary alcohols: In these carbon atom attached to OH group is directly attached to one or no carbon atom.



Primary alcohol



Ethanol

(5) How Grignard's reagent is used for the preparation of alcohols?

Page

(6) Define deprotonation

The removal of a proton (H^+) from molecule or an ion, forming its conjugate base.

Deprotonation



The alkoxide ion (RO^-) is the conjugate base of alcohol (ROH)

(7) What is a reagent?

A reagent is a compound or a mixture that is added to a system to cause a chemical reaction or test. If a reaction occurs.

e.g. Baeyer's reagent is dilute solution of $KMnO_4$. It is used to test the presence of a double bond. It reacts with a double bond to form a glycol.

PHENOLS

INTRODUCTION

Aromatic compounds containing one or more OH groups, directly attached with carbon of benzene ring, are called phenols.

- The simplest example phenol is also known as carbolic acid i.e. C_6H_5OH . It was first obtained from tar by Runge in 1834.
- Phenol is derived from the old name for benzene (**phene**) and a suffix (**ol**) is added to it, not indicating the presence of hydroxyl group.
- Brief information about phenol
 - First prepared by Runge. Melting point = $41^\circ C$ Boiling point = $182^\circ C$
 - Simplest example of phenol is Carbolic acid (C_6H_5OH)
- Phenols can be obtained via **substitution** reactions, with the hydrolysis of diazonium salts being the most important laboratory method.
- Phenols are acidic and are important intermediates in the preparation of aryl ethers C_6H_5-OR .

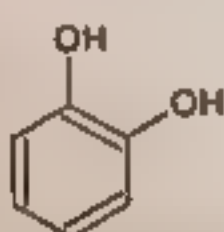
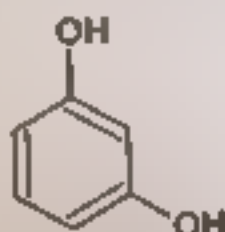
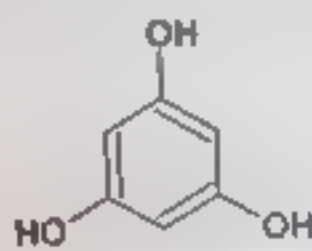
NOTE: The word **phenol** (C_6H_5-OH) is often confused with **phenyl** (C_6H_5-)

NOMENCLATURE

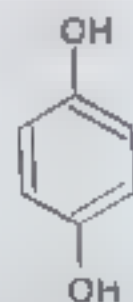
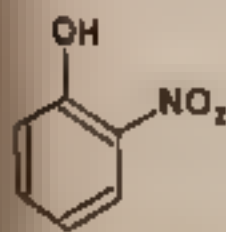
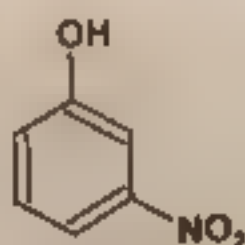
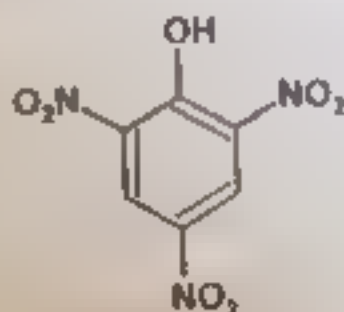
In common system alcohols are named by adding the word 'alcohol' after the name of the alkyl group to which the $-OH$ group is attached.



Phenol

1,2-Dihydroxybenzene
(o-Hydroxyphenol)
(Catechol)1,3-Dihydroxybenzene
(m-Hydroxyphenol)
(Resorcinol)

1,2,3-Trihydroxybenzene

1,4-Dihydroxybenzene
(p-Hydroxyphenol)
(Hydroquinone)2-Nitrophenol
(o-Nitrophenol)3-Nitrophenol
(m-Nitrophenol)2,4,6-Trinitrophenol
(Picric acid)

STRUCTURE

- The C-O bond in phenols is shorter than the C-O bond in alcohols because of the partial double bond character.
 - The C-O bond in phenols is stronger than the C-O bond in alcohols because of the partial double bond character.
 - The C-O bond in phenols is shorter than the C-O bond in alcohols because of the partial double bond character.
- The phenol shows following properties
- It is a weak acid.
 - It is a weak base.
 - It is a weak nucleophile.

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

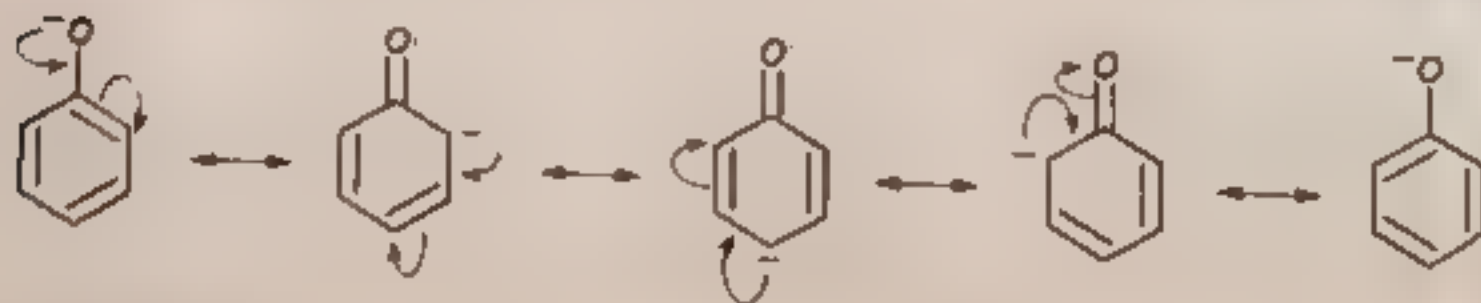
- Phenol is a colorless crystalline poisonous solid with characteristic phenolic odor having melting point 41°C and boiling point 182°C .
- It is sparingly soluble in water forming pink solution at room temperature but completely soluble above 68.5°C .
- It is poisonous and causes blisters on the skin.

ACIDITY

- Phenols are more acidic ($\text{p}K_a \approx 10$) than alcohols ($\text{p}K_a \approx 16-20$) but less acidic than carboxylic acids ($\text{p}K_a \approx 5$).
- Phenol ionizes in water as



- The negative charge of the phenolate ion is stabilized by resonance due to electron delocalization in the benzene ring as shown below

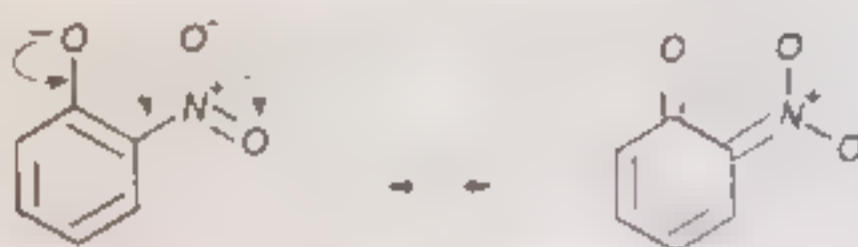


- The acidity difference means that it is possible to separate phenols from alcohols and/or carboxylic acids. When an ether solution of either phenol and alcohol or phenol and carboxylic acid is mixed with dilute base (sodium hydroxide and sodium bicarbonate respectively), then the stronger acid is converted into its alkali salt. This salt is extracted to the aqueous phase and can be separated from the organic phase.
- Nucleophilic substitution reactions of phenols are generally carried out under basic conditions as phenolate ion is a better nucleophile.

SUBSTITUENT EFFECTS ON ACIDITY

- Substituents can be electron withdrawing or electron donating. Inductive effects
- The more electronegative the substituent, the more acidic the phenol.
- Electron withdrawing groups (EWG) increase acidity.
- Electron donating groups (EDG) decrease acidity.
- e.g. The pK_a of phenol is 10.0.

carbonyl trap

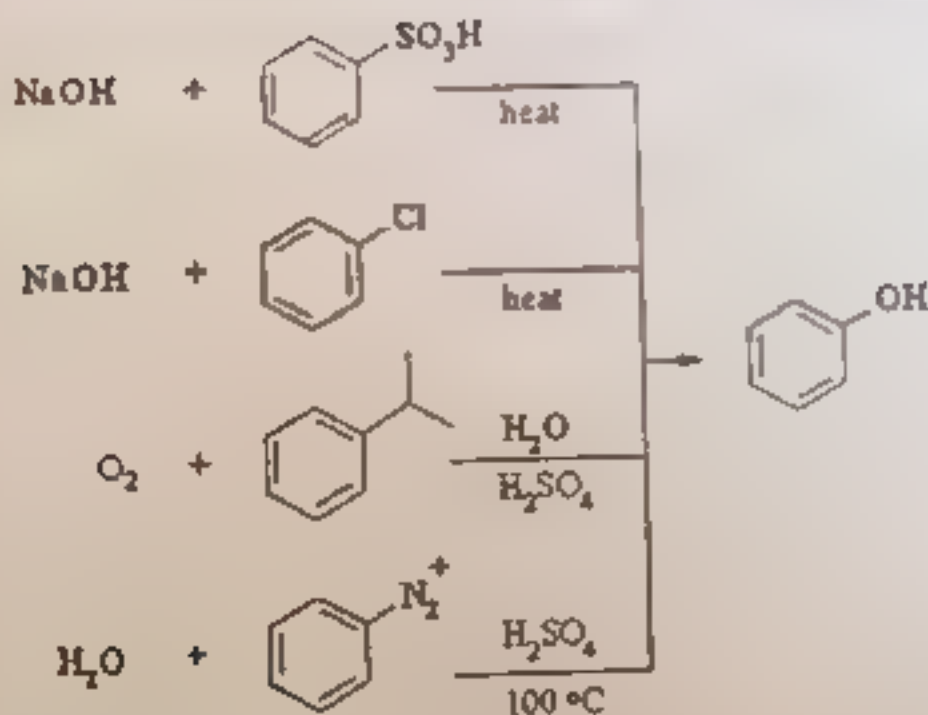


Compound pK_a Compound pK_a

Phenol			
o-Methoxyphenol	10.0	p-Methoxyphenol	10.2
o-Methylphenol	10.3	p-Methylphenol	10.3
o-Chlorophenol	8.6		

PREPARATIONS OF PHENOLS

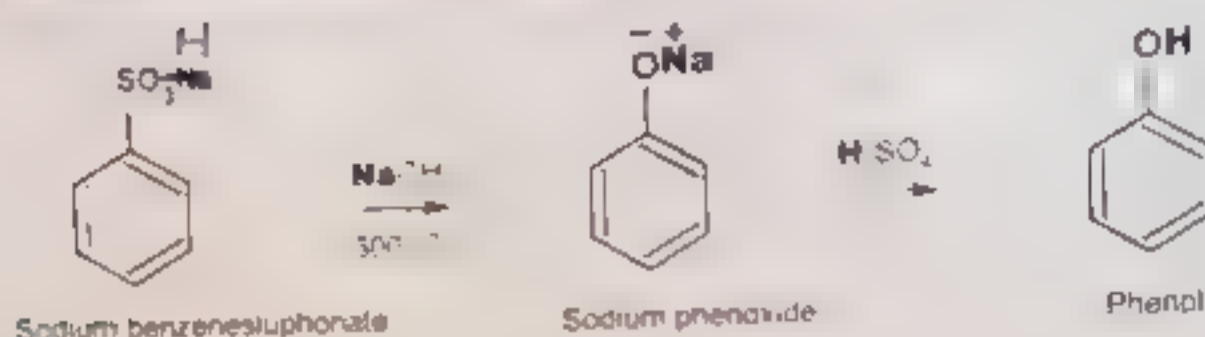
Summary:



NOTE

- The first three methods are primarily industrial methods.
- The hydrolysis of diazonium salts is the most important laboratory method.

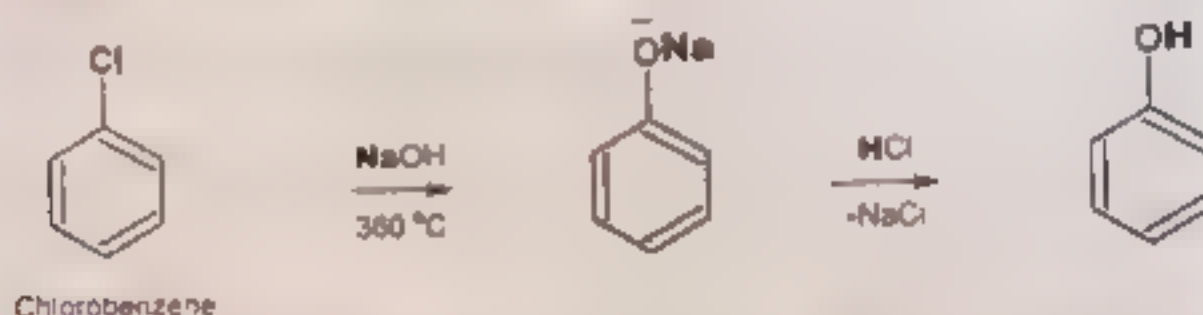
1. REACTION OF BENZENE SULFONIC ACID WITH HYDROXIDE



- At such a high temperature side reactions also occur

2. BASE HYDROLYSIS OF CHLOROBENZENE

Chlorobenzene is hydrolyzed by heating with NaOH at 360°C and under high pressure

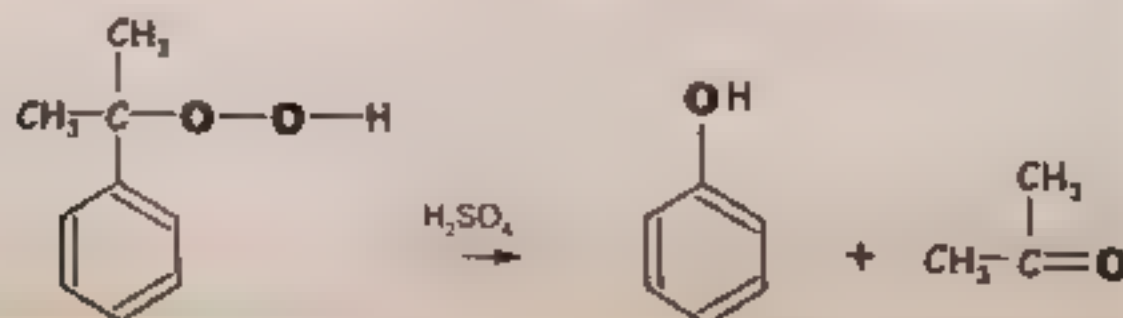


3. ACIDIC OXIDATION OF CUMENE

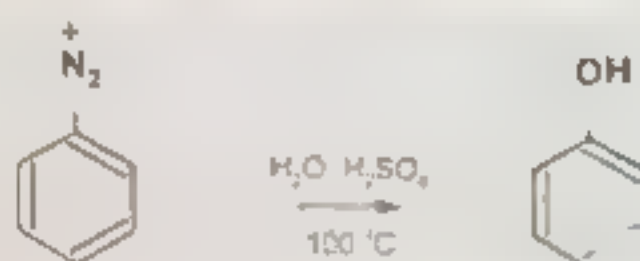
- This is a recently developed commercial method for the preparation of phenol
- Cumene is oxidized by atmospheric oxygen in presence of metal catalyst into cumene hydroperoxide



- The hydroperoxide is converted into phenol through an acid catalyzed rearrangement



4) PREPARATION OF PHENOLS FROM ARYL DIAZONIUM SALTS



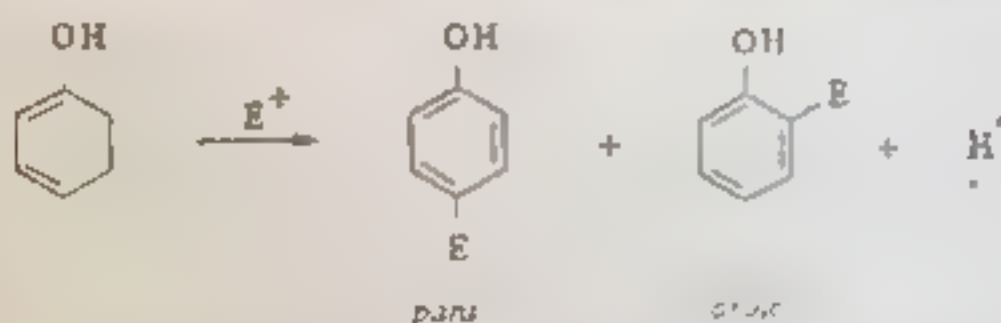
- Aryl diazonium salts can be converted into phenols using H_2O / H_2SO_4 at 100°C .
- Aryl diazonium salts are prepared by reaction of aryl amines with nitrous acid HNO .

REACTIVITY:

- Phenols are very reactive towards electrophiles.
- The OH group is an *ortho*- *para*- director therefore it produces *ortho*- *para*- products.
- The OH group is an electron donating group and it donates electrons to the benzene ring. Hence, mild conditions are needed for phenol than that for benzene.

REACTIONS OF PHENOLS

- Phenols are very reactive towards electrophiles.
- It is because the hydroxyl group OH is a strong activator.



- Substitution typically occurs *para* to the hydroxyl group. *ortho*- *para*- substitution occurs.
- The strong activation by OH group means that milder reaction conditions are needed for phenol than for benzene.
- Phenols are so activated that polysubstitution can occur. The *para*-substitution is usually the major product.

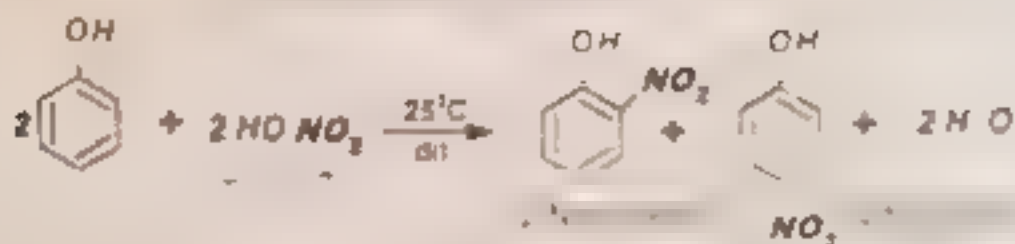
Reaction	Phenol	Benzene
Nitration	HNO_3 in H_2O or $\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}$	HNO_3 / H_2SO_4
Sulfonation	conc. H_2SO_4	H_2SO_4 / SO_3 / H_2SO_4
Haloogenation	X_2	X_2 / Fe or FeX_3
Acylation	ROH / H^+ or RCOCl / AlCl_3	RCOCl / AlCl_3
Nitrosation	RCOOH / AlCl_3	RCOOH / AlCl_3
	aq. NaNO_2 / H^+	

Some of these reactions are given on next page

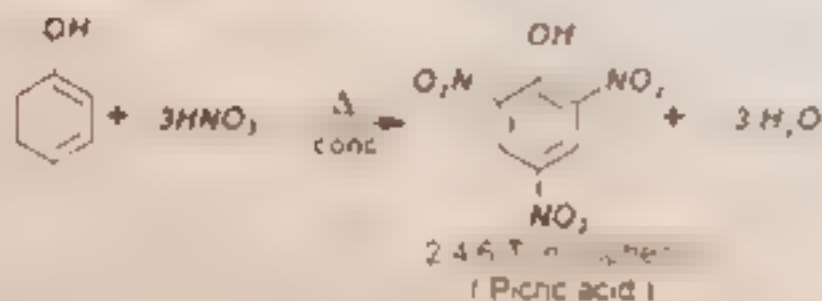
SOME USEFUL ELECTROPHILIC SUBSTITUTION REACTIONS OF PHENOL

NITRATION

Phenol reacts with dil. HNO_3 at 25°C to give

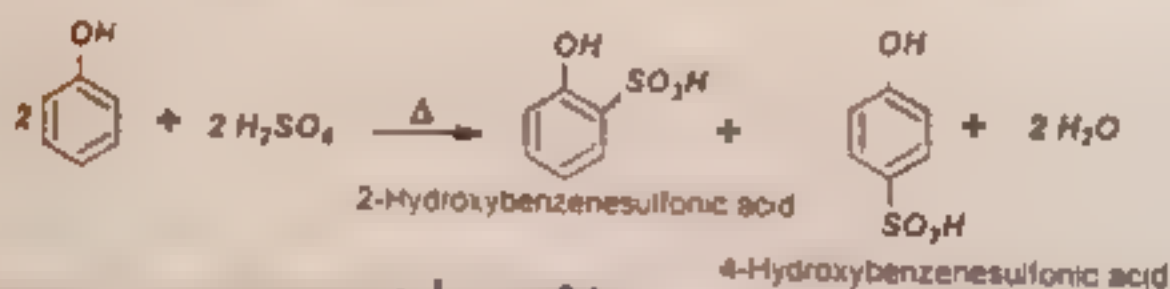


Phenol reacts with conc. HNO_3 at 100°C to give



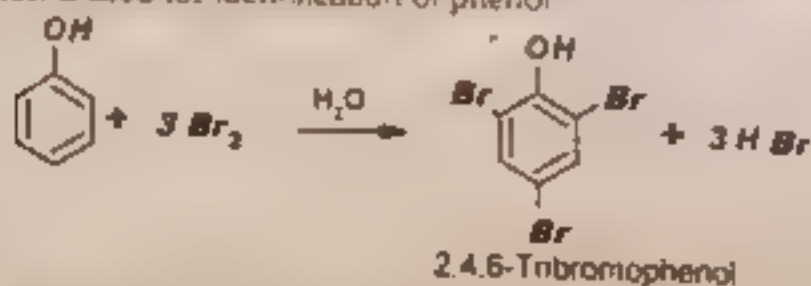
SULPHONATION

- Phenol reacts with conc. H_2SO_4 at room temperature to give o and p isomers, 2-hydroxybenzenesulphonic acid and 4-hydroxybenzenesulphonic acid.
- At 20°C o-isomer is formed in greater percentage while at 100°C p-isomer is formed in greater percentage.

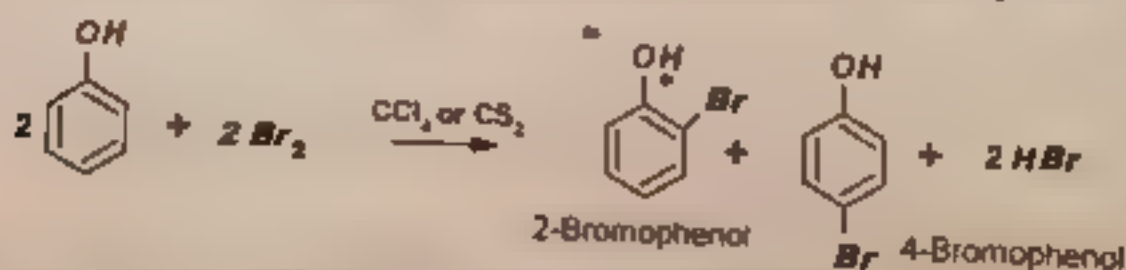


HALOGENATION

- Aqueous solution of phenol reacts with bromine water to give white precipitates of 2,4,6-tribromophenol. This test is used for identification of phenol.



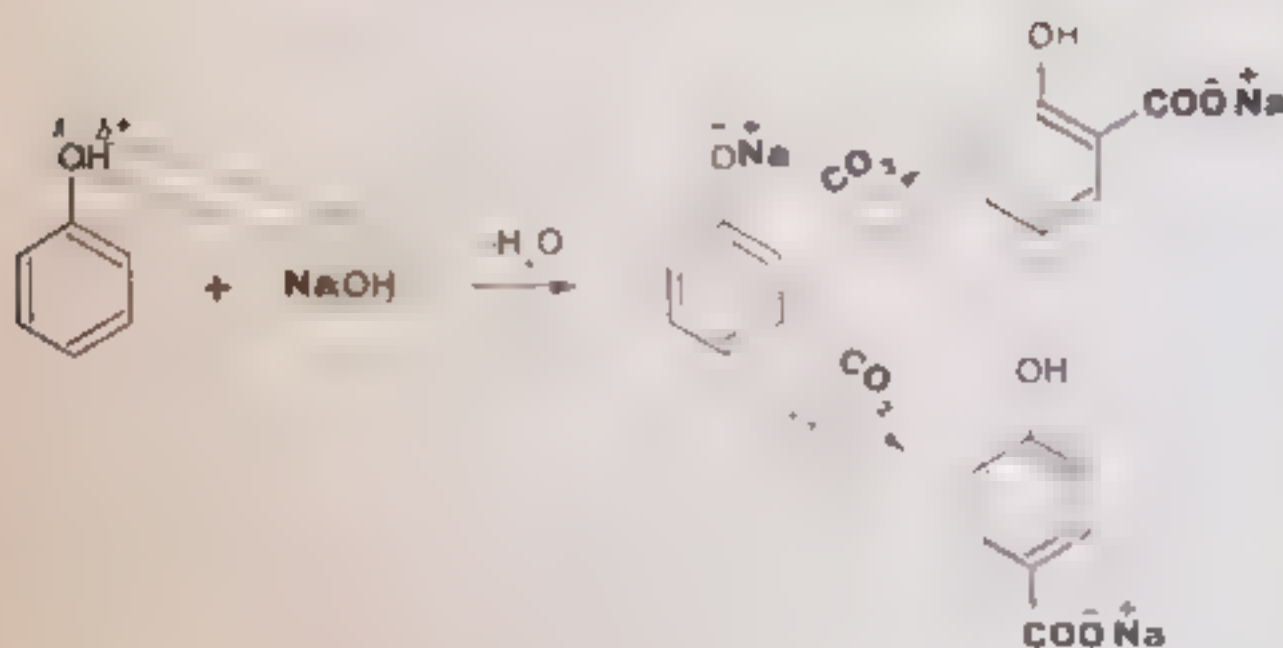
- When Br_2 is reacted in anhydrous solvent like CS_2 a mixture of o- and p-bromophenol is produced.



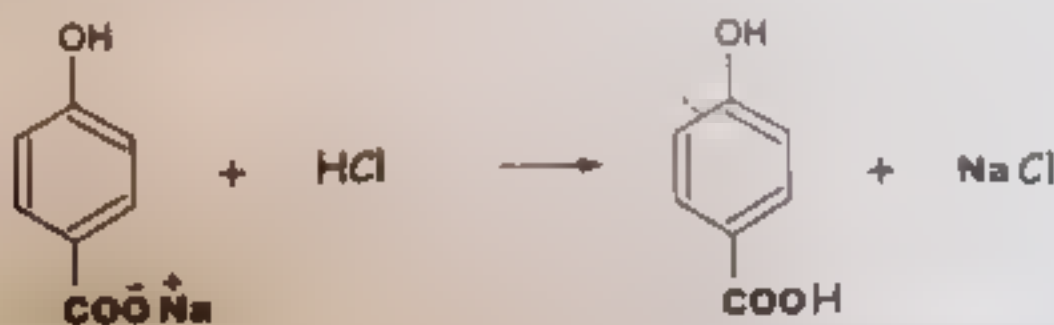
1) REACTION WITH SODIUM METAL: CARBOXYLATION OF PHENOLS (KOLBE-SCHNITT REACTION)

Quick Quiz-2 4 Explain carboxylation of phenols

- The reaction is endothermic.
- At low temperature, the o-product isomerizes to p-product.



- Carbon of CO_2 acts as electrophilic centre in this reaction. Acidification of sodium salicylate gives corresponding hydroxyl acid.



2) Oxidation of Phenols

- Phenols are very reactive towards oxidizing agents.
- The oxidation takes place through several steps which finally destroys the ring.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ALCOHOLS AND PHENOL

The main difference between alcohols and phenols are as follows:

Alcohol:

- The compound in which hydroxyl group is attached to an alkyl group.
- Alcohols are hydroxyl derivatives of alkanes.
- The compounds in which one hydrogen of water is replaced by an alkyl group.
- The general formula of alcohol is $R-OH$.
- Alcohols may be primary, secondary and tertiary.
- Lower alcohols are generally colorless liquids.
- Alcohols have a characteristic sweet smell and burning taste.
- They are readily soluble in water but solubility decreases in higher alcohols.
- Alcohol reacts with other reagents in two ways, either in which $C-O$ bond breaks or $O-H$ bond breaks.

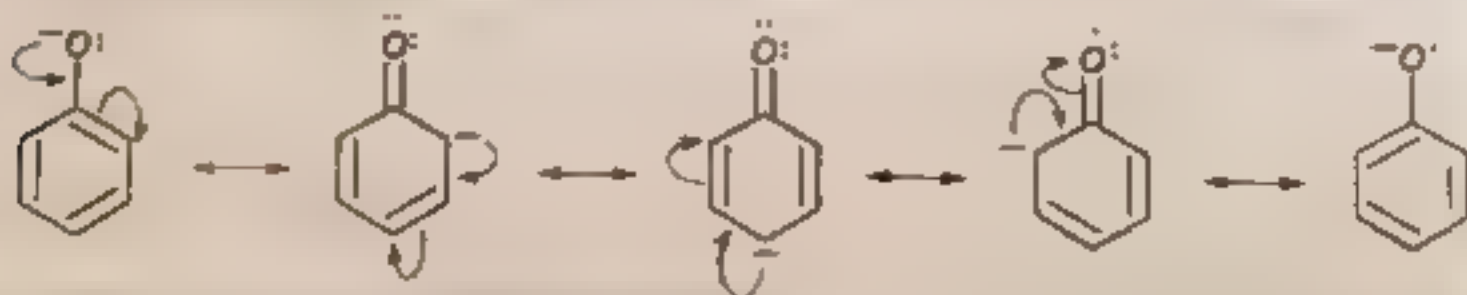
Phenol:

- The compound in which hydroxyl group is attached to an aryl group.
- Phenols are derivatives of benzene.
- The compounds in which one hydrogen of water is replaced by an aryl group.
- The general formula of phenol is C_6H_5OH . It is also known as carbolic acid.
- Phenols are not monohydric or polyhydric.
- They are colorless, crystalline, deliquescent solids.
- They have characteristic phenolic odor.
- Its melting point is $41^\circ C$.
- Phenols are more acidic ($pK_a = 10$) than alcohols ($pK_a = 16 - 20$).
- It is sparingly soluble in water forming pink solution at room temperature but completely soluble above $68.5^\circ C$.
- Phenolate ions have resonance structures but alcohols do not have such type structures.

QUICK QUIZ (2)

(1) How negative charge of phenolate ion is stable?

The negative charge of the phenolate ion is stabilized by resonance due to electron delocalization on the benzene ring as shown below:



(2) What is acidity order of phenols?

Electron withdrawing groups increases the acidity of phenols while electron withdrawing groups decreases the acidity of phenols.

Thus nitrophenols are stronger than phenol while methyl phenols are weaker than phenols.

So with these phenols the order is (more acidic) nitrophenols > phenol > methyl phenol (less acidic).

(3) Why phenols are very reactive towards electrophilic aromatic substitution

- Phenols are very reactive towards electrophilic aromatic substitution
- The OH group is an ortho- para- director therefore it produces ortho- para- products
- The OH group is an electron donating group and it donates electrons to the benzene ring. Thus it activates the ring. Hence, mild conditions are needed for phenol than that for benzene

(4) Explain carbonation of phenols

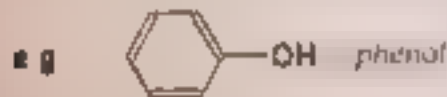
Page

(5) Alcohols and phenols both contain -OH group. What is difference between them?

In alcohols the OH group is directly attached to an alkyl group. Its general formula is $R-OH$

e.g. CH_3-OH (Methanol)

In phenols the OH group is directly attached to an aromatic ring. Its general formula is $Ar-OH$

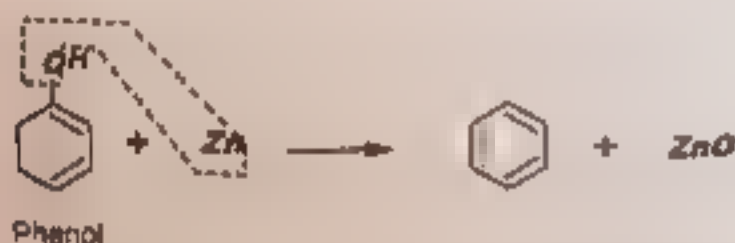


(6) Why phenol is more acidic than ethyl alcohol?

The anion of phenol is stabilized by resonance. The anion of ethyl alcohol cannot be stabilized by resonance. Generally, greater the stability of anion, higher the acidity. So, due to greater stability of anion of phenol, it is more acidic than ethanol.

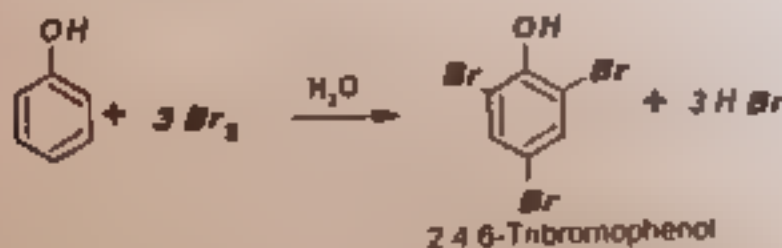
(7) What happens when phenol is heated with zinc dust?

Benzene is obtained by distilling phenol with Zinc dust



(8) What happens when phenol is treated with bromine water?

Aqueous solution of phenol reacts with bromine water to give white precipitates of 2,4,6-tribromophenol. The red colour of bromine water is discharged. This test is used for identification of phenol.



ETHERS

The compounds in which both hydrogen atoms of water are replaced by alkyl or aryl groups are called ethers.

These have general formula $R-O-R_2$

Where R and R_2 are alkyl or aryl groups

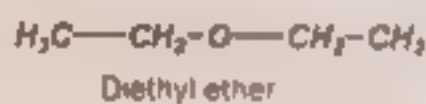
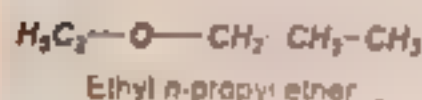
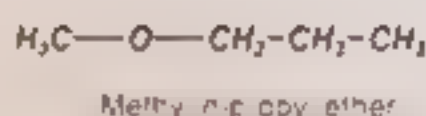
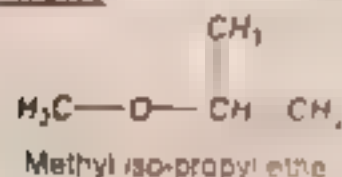
Ethers are classified into two categories

If $R_1 = R_2$, the ether is called simple or symmetrical ether e.g. CH_3-O-CH_3

If $R \neq R_2$, the ether is called mixed or unsymmetrical ether e.g. $CH_3-O-C_2H_5$

NOMENCLATURE**(i) Common System of Naming**

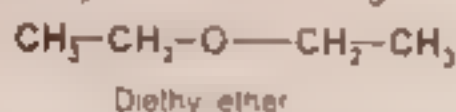
In common system of naming ethers are named by naming the two groups bonded to oxygen.

Examples

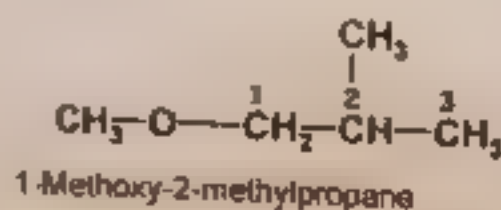
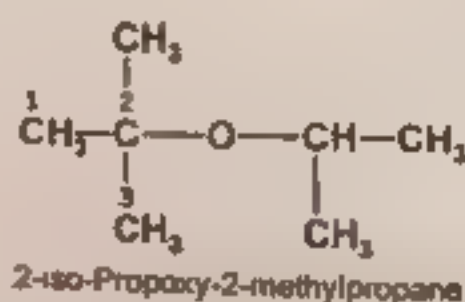
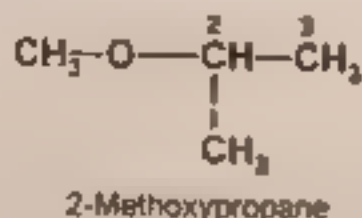
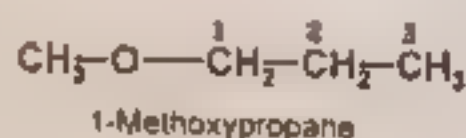
Exercise Q2 (ix): Write the nomenclature of ether by IUPAC system

(ii) IUPAC System

- In IUPAC system of naming simple ethers are named by naming the two groups linked to oxygen and followed by the word ether e.g.

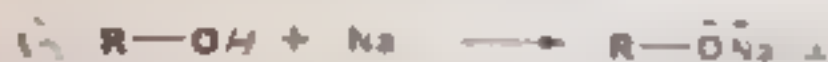


- Mixed ethers are named as alkyl derivatives of hydrocarbon. The smaller alkyl group along with oxygen forms the alkoxy substituent.

Examples

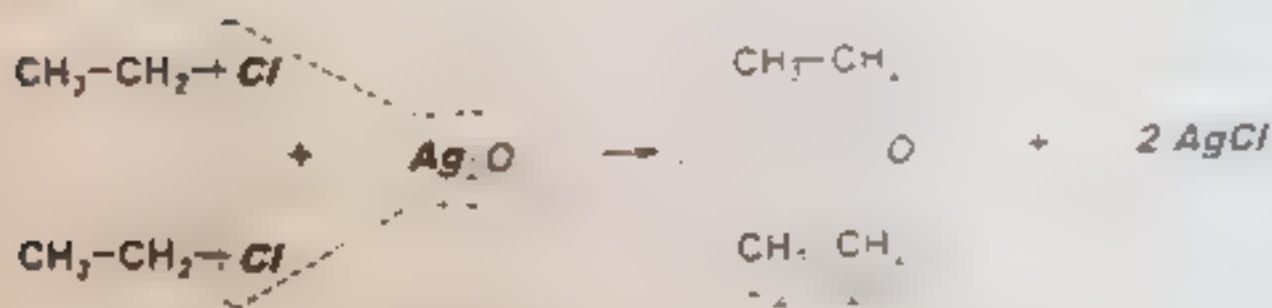
PREPARATION OF ETHERS

1) WILLIAMSON'S SYNTHESIS



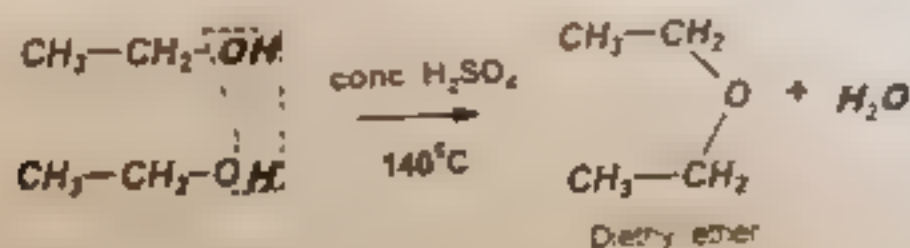
2) FROM ALKYL HALIDES AND SILVER OXIDE

Alkyl halides are heated with dry silver oxide to form ethers.

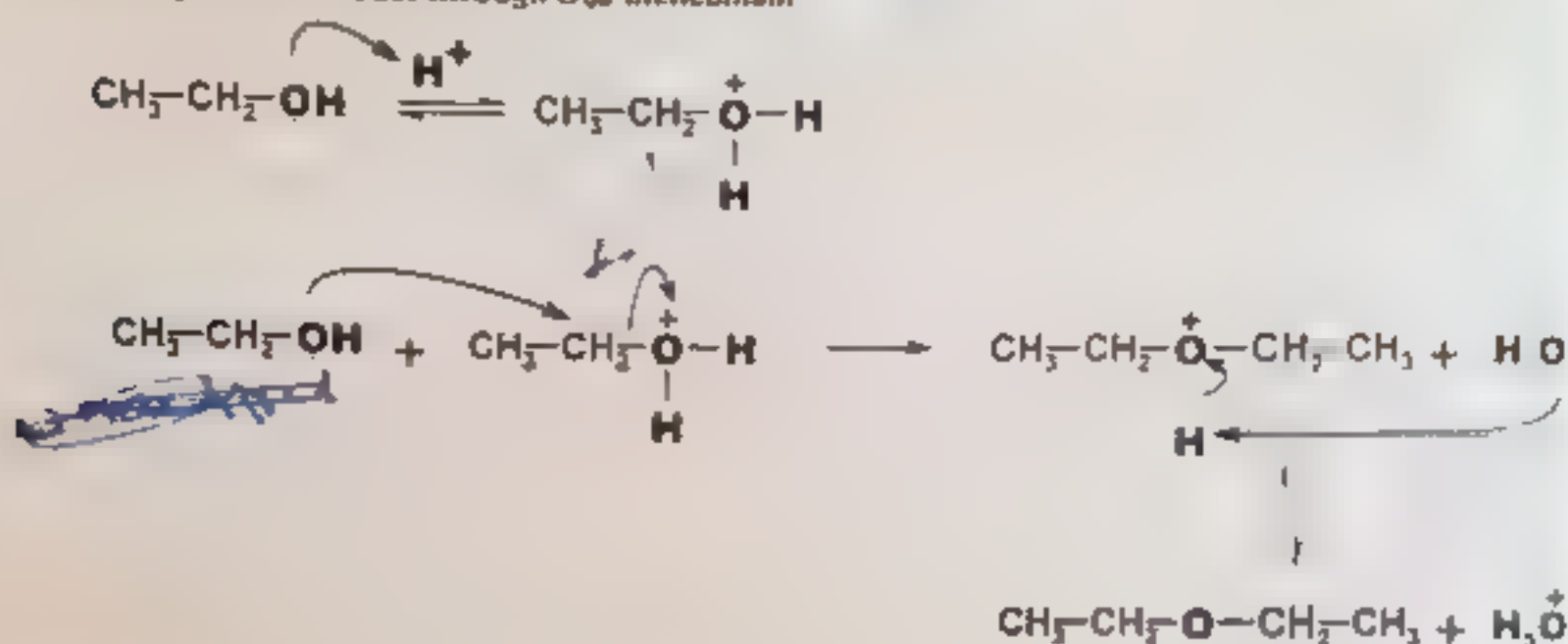


(iii) By Dehydration of Alcohols

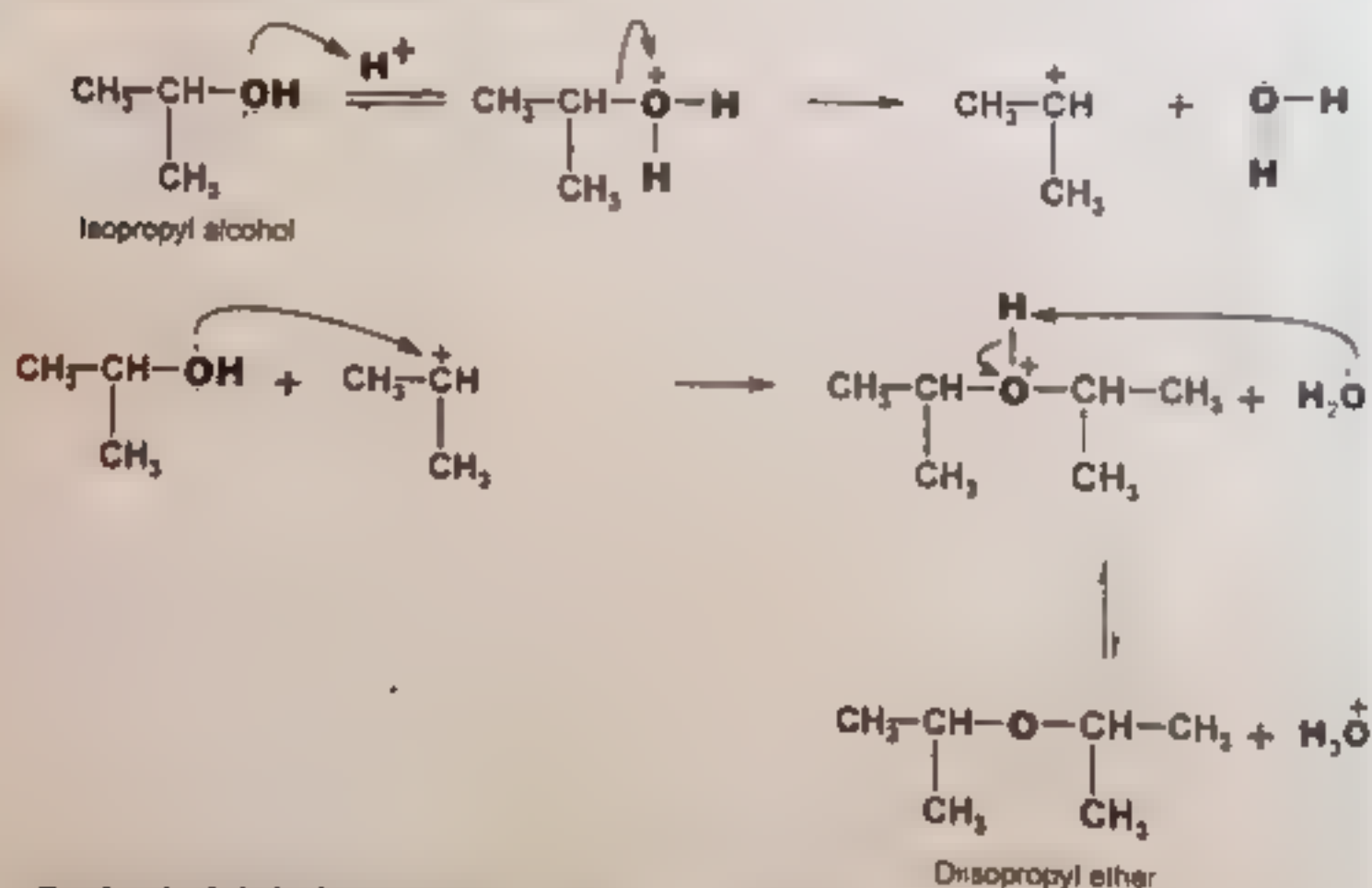
By heating excess of alcohol with concentrated H_2SO_4 .



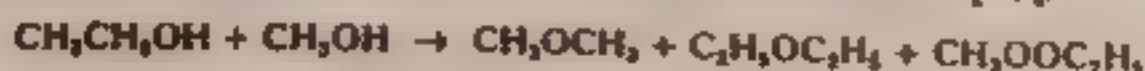
- Primary alcohols react through S_N2 mechanism



- Secondary alcohols react by S_N1 -mechanism



- ter-Butyl and ethyl alcohol give one ether.
- Two different primary alcohols give three ethers when treated with H_2SO_4 .



PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

- Ethers are colorless, low boiling, highly inflammable compounds.
- Their chemical inactivity and their ability to dissolve fats, oil, gum and many other organic compound make them very good solvent
- Ethers are soluble in concentrated sulphuric acid, a characteristic of oxygen containing compounds. This property is used as a test to distinguish between ethers and saturated hydrocarbons

CHEMICAL REACTIVITY:

The image shows the electrostatic potential for dimethyl ether

The more red an area is, the higher the electron density and the more blue an area is, the lower the electron density

The etheral O atom is a region of high electron density (red, due to the lone pairs)

Ether oxygen atoms are Lewis bases

Like an alcohol -OH group, the -OR group is a poor leaving group and needs to be converted to a better leaving group before substitution can occur

The most important reaction of ethers is their cleavage by strong acids such as



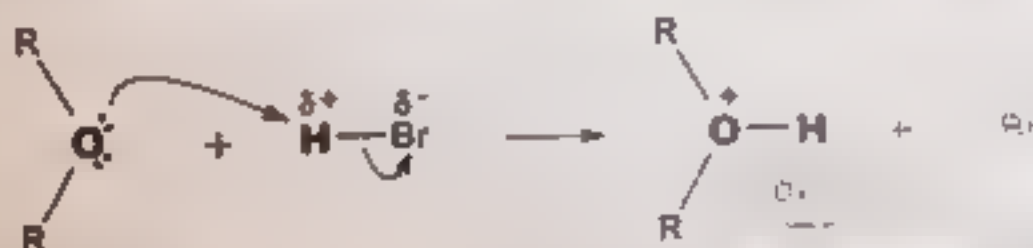
(1) RESISTANCE TO OXIDATION:

How ethers show resistance to oxidation?

Ethers are resistant to attack by the usual chemical oxidizing agents. Metals and acids have no action on ethers.

(2) REACTION WITH H-BR

The oxygen atom of an ether molecule possesses unshared electron pairs and can form oxonium ion

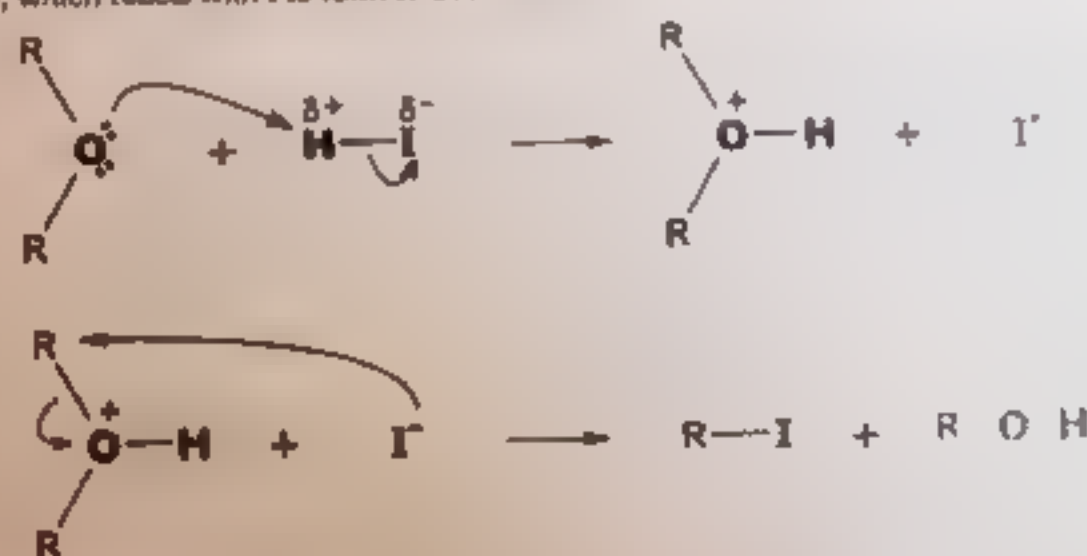


No further reaction takes place.

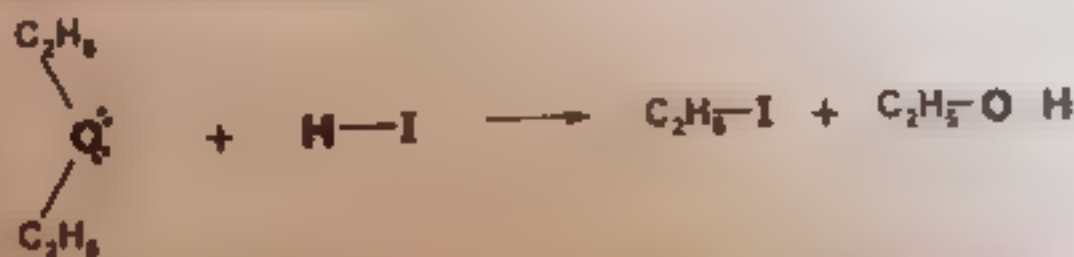
A species with a positive charge on oxygen is called an oxonium ion.

(3) REACTION WITH H-I

The oxygen atom of an ether molecule possesses unshared electron pairs and can form oxonium ion, which reacts with I to form R-OH and RI

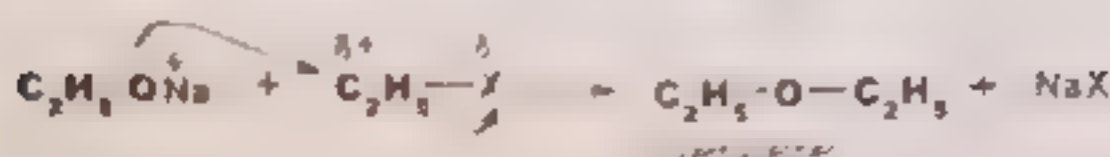
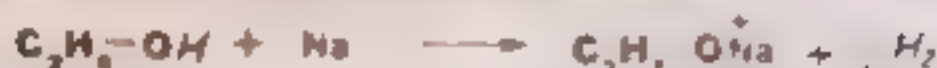


Diethyl ether reacts with HI to form $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{-OH}$ and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{I}$



QUICK QUIZ (3)

(1) How is diethyl ether prepared in the laboratory?



(2) What are symmetrical and unsymmetrical ethers?

The compounds in which both hydrogens are replaced by alkyl groups are called ethers.

If both have same alkyl group, the ether is called symmetrical ether.

If $R_1 \neq R_2$, the ether is called mixed or unsymmetrical ether.

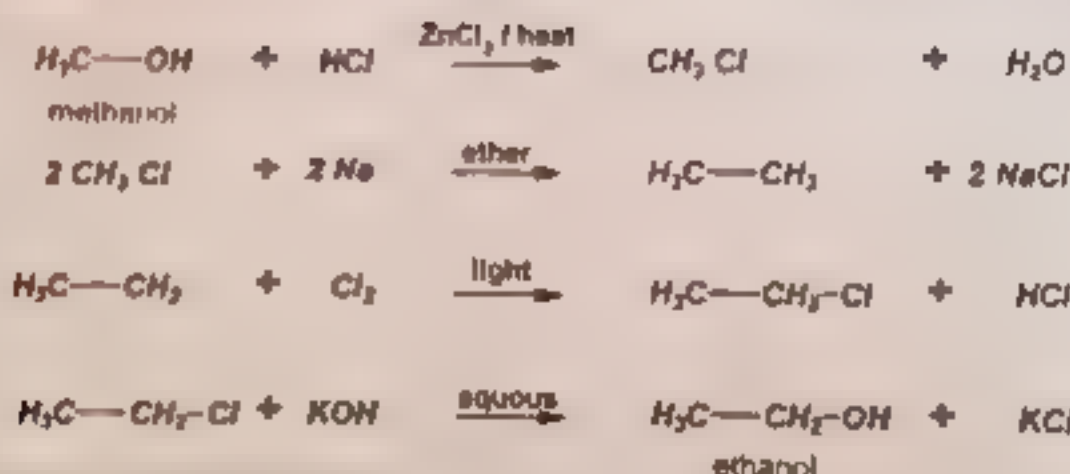
If $R_1 \neq R_2$, the ether is called mixed or unsymmetrical ether.

(2) What is Williamson's synthesis? It is a method of preparation of ethers.

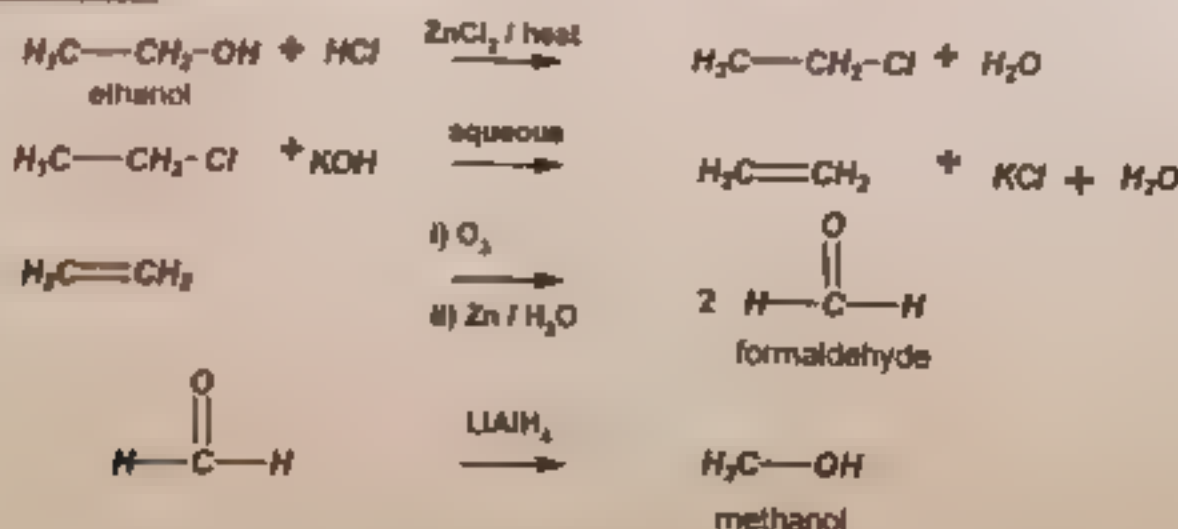


SOME IMPORTANT CONVERSIONS

(i) Methanol into ethanol



(ii) Ethanol into methanol



$$\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-OH} + [\text{O}] \xrightarrow[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4]{\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7} \text{CH}_3\text{-}\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}\text{-H} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$$

Ehanol Acetic acid



1 ANTISEPTICS AND DISINFECTANTS

- Antiseptics and disinfectants are an essential part of infection control practices and aim in the prevention of nosocomial infections.
- They are extensively used in hospitals and other health care settings for a variety of topical and hard surface application.
- A wide variety of active chemical agents or biocides are found in these products many of which have been used for hundred of years for antiseptics, disinfection and preservation.
- In general, biocides have a broader spectrum of activity than antibiotics.
- The widespread use of antiseptic and disinfectant products has promoted some speculation on the development of microbial resistance in particular cross-resistance to antibiotics.
- Anti microbial activity of antiseptics and disinfectants can be influenced by many factors e.g. pH, ionic strength, effects, presence of an organic load, temperature, dilution etc.

Antiseptics

Antiseptics
An antiseptic is a substance which inhibits the growth and development of micro organisms. It is used for disinfection of the skin and mucous membrane and for sterilisation of instruments.

- An antiseptic is a substance which inhibits the growth and development of micro organisms.
- Antiseptics are thought of as topical agents for application to skin, mucous membrane and inanimate objects. They can be either bactericidal or bacteriostatic.
- Their uses include cleansing of skin and wound, surfaces after injury preparation or skin surface prior to injection or surgical procedure and routine disinfection or surgical procedure and routine disinfection of oral cavity as part of oral hygiene.



Disinfectants

- Disinfectants were used to kill germs on surfaces.
- Today disinfectants are widely used to keep public places clean.
- Disinfectants are chemical substances that kill germs.

2 ETHYL - AN EFFECTIVE ANAESTHETIC

- Before the advent of anaesthetics, surgery was very painful. Patients were therefore only able to undergo minor operations. The discovery of a drug which could render patients unconscious was a great relief. It is now possible to perform major surgery without any pain.
- Three of the most important early anaesthetics were ether, chloroform and nitrous oxide. Nitrous oxide is non-toxic and non-flammable but it only produces deep anaesthesia for a short time. It is now used as a sedative.

KEY POINTS

- Alcohols are derivatives of alkanes and carboxylic hydrocarbons.
- General formula for alcohol is ROH for Phenol $ArOH$, and for ether it is $ROOR$.
- Alcohols are usually named by replacing 'e' for the Alkane with 'ol'.
- Primary alcohols are the most common.
- Secondary alcohols can be oxidized to ketones but not to aldehydes.
- Tertiary alcohols are not oxidized to carbonyl compounds.
- Each carbon atom is bonded to two other carbon atoms and a hydrogen atom via sigma bonds.
- Alcohols are more acidic than water (pKa = 16) versus ROH (pKa = 16 to 19).
- Phenols are more acidic (pKa = 10) than alcohols (pKa = 16 to 20) but less acidic than carboxylic acids (pKa = 4).
- Epoxydides are more reactive than simple ethers.
- In IUPAC system, ethers are named as alkoxy derivatives of alkanes.
- In contrast to alcohols, ethers are fairly unreactive.
- Alcohols are soluble in water while phenols are sparingly soluble.
- General formula for alcohol is ROH while for phenol is $ArOH$.
- Methyl alcohol has proved to be excellent fuel for engines.
- Ethyl alcohol may be the first organic chemical produced by humans.
- Ethyl alcohol is also named as wine, beer and whiskey.
- Fuel oil mainly consists of amyl alcohol ($C_5H_{11}OH$).
- 95% ethyl alcohol is known as rectified spirit or commercial alcohol.
- Ethylene glycol is the major component in commercial coolants and anti freeze.
- Glycerol is an excellent moisture retaining agent. It is used in vanishing creams, body lotions, shaving foams and tooth pastes.
- Bakelite (plastic) is phenol form aldehyde resin.
- Phenol is used as starting material for drugs such as salol, aspirin, phenolphthalein and several other dyes.
- Diethyl ether has been used in surgery for anaesthesia.
- Cyclic ethers are known as epoxides.

EXERCISE

Q1: Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

- Which compound shows hydrogen bonding?
(a) C_2H_6 (b) $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ (c) CH_3Cl (d) CH_3I
- Which compound is called a universal solvent?
(a) H_2O (b) $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ (c) CH_3OH (d) CH_3COOH
- According to Lewis concept ethers behave as
(a) Acid (b) Base (c) Acid as well as base (d) None of them
- Ethanol can be converted into ethanoic acid by
(a) Hydrogenation (b) Oxidation (c) Reduction (d) Dehydration
- Ethanol is denatured by adding
(a) methanol (b) Carboxylic acid (c) Acetone (d) Propene
- When phenol reacts with CH_3COCl the product formed is
(a) Ether (b) Alcohol (c) Aldehyde (d) Ester
- Williamson's synthesis of ethers is superior to alcohols because it makes
(a) Symmetrical ethers (b) Asymmetrical ethers (c) Ether at room temperature (d) Both symmetrical and asymmetrical ethers
- A methyl phenol is also called
(a) A cresol (b) Benzyl alcohol (c) Aniline (d) Methyl phenyl ether
- Which one of the following compounds does not contain carboxylic group
(a) Acetic acid (b) Formic acid (c) Benzoic acid (d) Picric acid
- Hydrogen bonding is maximum in
(a) Diethyl ether (b) Ethanol (c) Ethyl alcohol (d) Triethylamine
- Which of the following compounds have no attraction at all with water?
(a) C_6H_6 (b) $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ (c) CH_3COOH (d) $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{Cl}$
- Phenols are more acidic than alcohols which statement is correct?
(a) Phenol turns blue litmus paper red (b) Acetic acid liberates CO_2 with carbonate solution (c) Phenoxide ion is stabilized due to resonance (d) Alkoxide ion is stabilized due to resonance
- Carboxylic acid is treated with dilute nitric acid at 25°C , the product is
(a) o-nitrophenol (b) p-nitrophenol (c) m-nitrophenol (d) None of these
- Oxonium ion is formed when
(a) Ethanol reacts with Na metal (b) Phenol reacts NaOH solution (c) Ether is treated with H^+ (d) Ethanol is treated with aq. Na^+
- 2,4,6-Trinitrophenol is commercially called as
(a) TNT (b) Picric acid (c) Carboxylic acid (d) None of these

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

(i) Ans: (b) $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$

$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ shows hydrogen bonding, since it contains OH group.

(ii) Ans: (a) H_2O

H_2O is called a universal solvent.

(iii) Ans: (b) Base

According to Lewis concept, a base is defined as a species which has lone pair of electrons or 'Donor' species. Since ether has lone pair of electrons on oxygen atom, ($\text{R}-\text{O}-\text{R}$), so it can donate these and thus it can behave as a Lewis base.

(iv) Ans: (d) Ester

Phenol reacts with CH_3COCl to form an ester.

(v) Ans: (a) methanol

Methanol is added to ethanol to make it unfit for drinking.

(vi) Ans: (d) Ester

CH_3COOH reacts with $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ to form an ester.

(vii) Ans: (d) Both symmetrical and asymmetrical ethers

Williamson's synthesis uses an alkoxide and an alkyl halide. Thus, both symmetrical and asymmetrical ethers can be prepared.

(viii) Ans: (a) A cresol

2,4,6-Trinitrophenol is called as picric acid.

18. Which of the following is a primary alcohol?

(iii) Answer: (b) Phenolic acid (iv) Answer: (b) Ethanol or (c) Ethyl alcohol

(v) Answer: (a) C_2H_5 (vi) Answer: (c) Phenoxide ion is stabilised due to resonance

(vii) Answer: (d) Both a and b (viii) Answer: (c) Ether is treated with HI

(ix) Answer: (b) Phenolic acid

Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

1. What are the types of alcohols?

Monohydric alcohols

Polyhydric alcohols

Acidol

Classification of Monohydric Alcohols

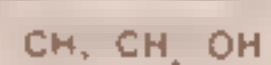
(i)

Primary

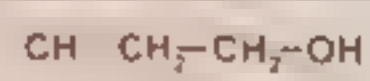
Structure



Methanol



Ethanol



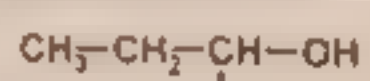
1-Propanol
or propyl alcohol

(ii) Secondary alcohols

In these carbon atom attached to $-OH$ group is directly attached to two carbon atoms



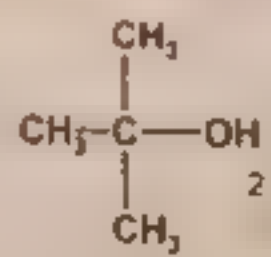
2-Propanol
(sec-Propyl alcohol)



2-Butanol
(sec-Butyl alcohol)

(iii) Tertiary alcohols

In these carbon atom attached to $-OH$ group is directly attached to three carbon atoms



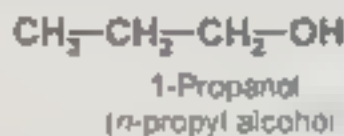
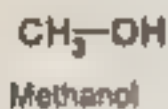
2-Methyl-2-propanol
ter-Butyl alcohol

(iii) How are monohydric alcohols classified?

Monohydric alcohols are classified into the following three families

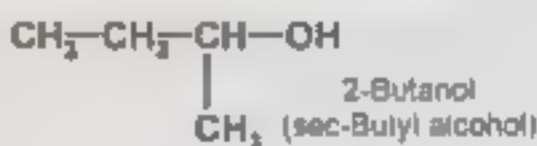
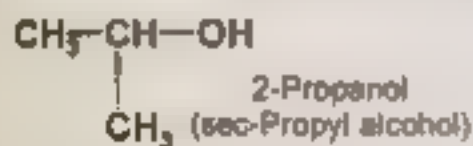
(i) Primary alcohols.

In these, carbon atom attached to OH group, is directly attached to one or more carbon atoms



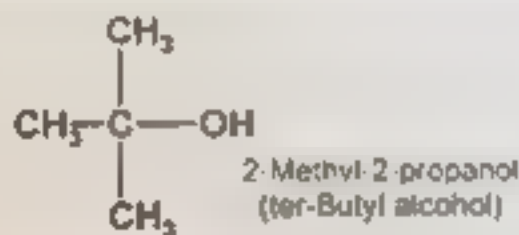
(ii) Secondary alcohols.

In these, carbon atom attached to OH group, is directly attached to two carbon atoms



(iii) Tertiary alcohols.

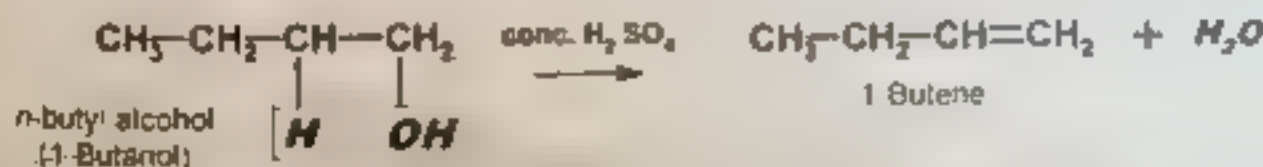
In these, carbon atom attached to OH group, is directly attached to three carbon atoms



(iii) Compare the acidity of primary, secondary and tertiary alcohols

- Due to the electronegativity of the O atoms, alcohols are slightly acidic
- The anion derived by the deprotonation of an alcohol is the alkoxide
 $\text{ROH} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{RO}^- + \text{H}_3\text{O}^+$
- The alkyl groups attached to α -carbon atom decreases the acidity
- Thus, primary alcohol is more acidic than secondary which is more acidic than tertiary alcohols

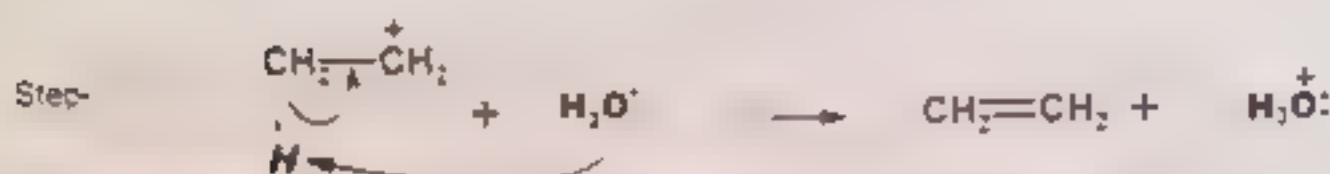
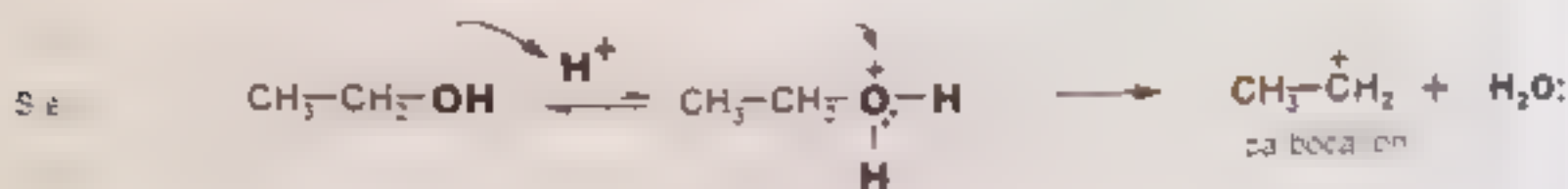
(iv) 2-Butene is the major product when n-butyl alcohol is heated with conc. H_2SO_4 . Explain



The stability of alkene increases with increase in degree of substitution on double bond. Thus, more alkylated alkenes are more stable. Since, 1-butene is less alkylated than 2-butene, therefore, under acidic conditions, 1-butene rearranges to 2-butene. Hence, 2-butene is the major product



4. Give the mechanism of dehydration of alcohols



NOTE: The mechanism for the formation of ethers is given on page 255

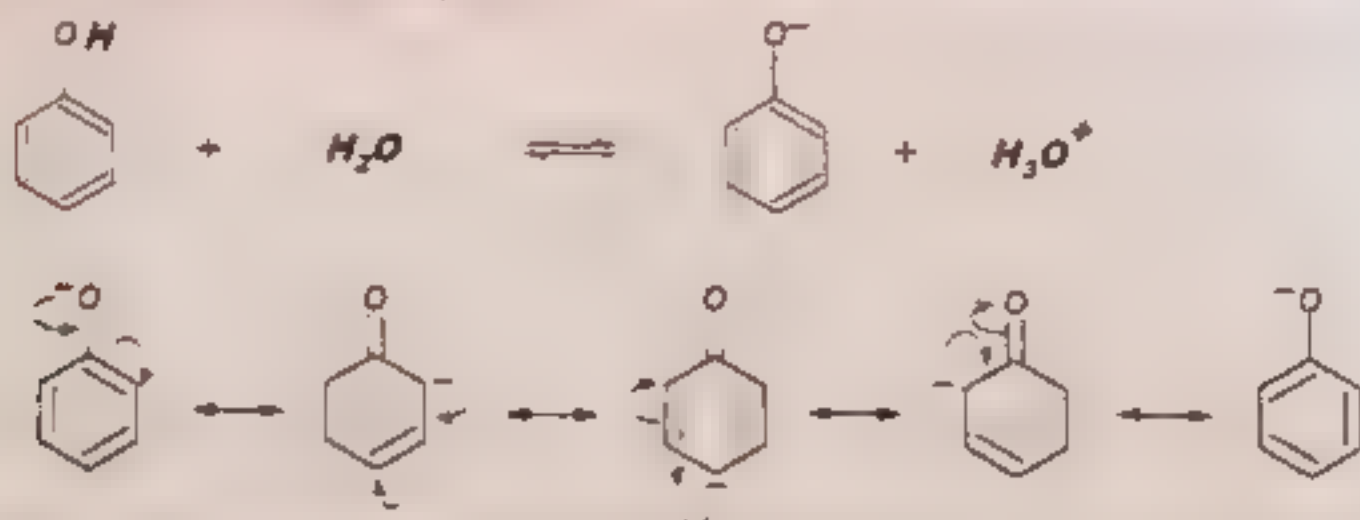
(i) How will you obtain benzene from alcohol phenol?

Benzene is obtained by distilling phenol with



(ii) Alcohols phenols both have OH group but phenols are more acidic than alcohols

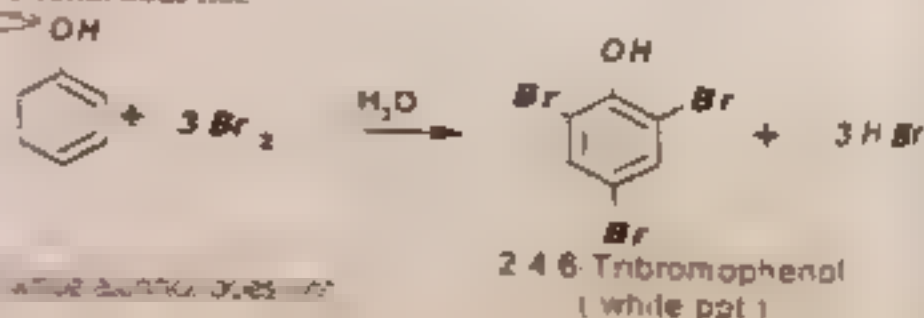
Phenols are more acidic than alcohols because the negative charge phenoxide ion is stabilized by resonance due to delocalization of the lone pair on oxygen. There is resonance stabilization of phenoxide ion.



(iii) How will you differentiate between an alcohol and phenol?

These can be distinguished by following ways

- Phenol gives white ppt with Br_2 water while alcohol does not.



- Alcohol is neutral while phenol is acidic.

- Phenol gives deep purple color with FeCl_3 while alcohols do not.

Q1) Write the nomenclature of ether by IUPAC system.
See Page 234

Q2) Why is phenol more soluble in water than ethanol?

Q3: Give detailed answers for the following questions.

1. How will you prepare alcohol or
INDUSTRIAL PREPARATION OF METHANOL

At 200 atm and 250°C

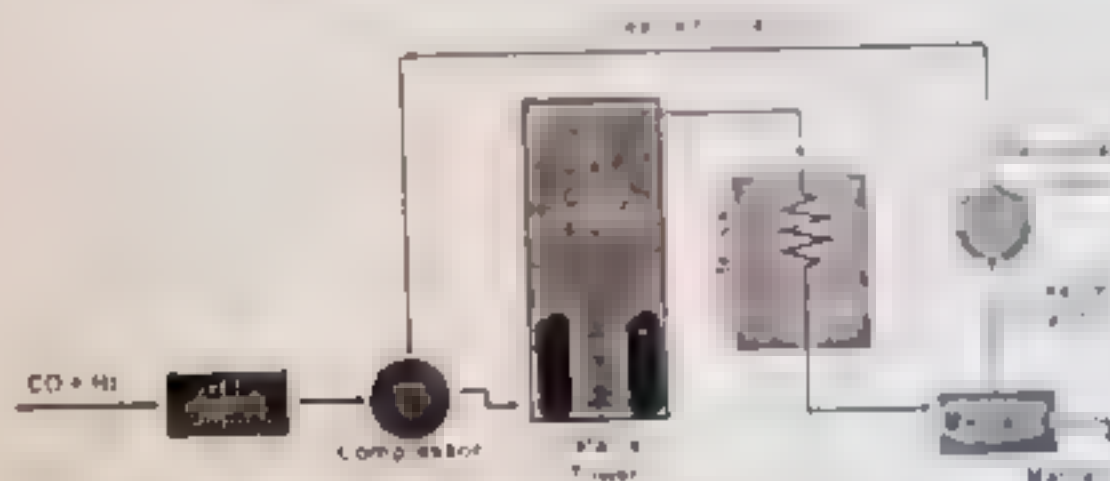
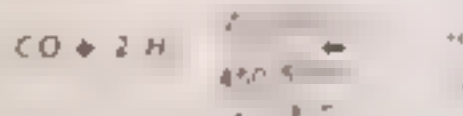


Fig. 1 Flow chart diagram for the manufacture of methanol

- In this process, a mixture of CO and H_2 is taken to the reaction chamber at 200 atm and 250°C.
- These are then taken to the reaction chamber at 200 atm and 250°C.
- CO and H_2 reacts together to give methanol vapour.
- These vapours are passed through a condenser to separate the methanol from the unreacted gases.
- Unreacted gases are recycled through compressor back to the reactor.

INDUSTRIAL PREPARATION OF ETHANOL

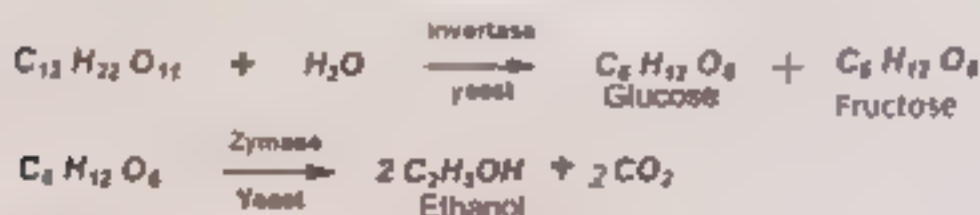
All over the world ethanol is prepared on industrial scale by the process of fermentation.

- Fermentation is a bio-chemical process which occurs in the presence of certain enzymes secreted by micro-organisms such as yeast.
- Optimum temperature for this process is 25-35°C.
- Proper aeration, dilution of solution and absence of any preservative are essential for fermentation.
- In Pakistan ethanol is prepared by the fermentation of molasses, starch grains of fruits etc.

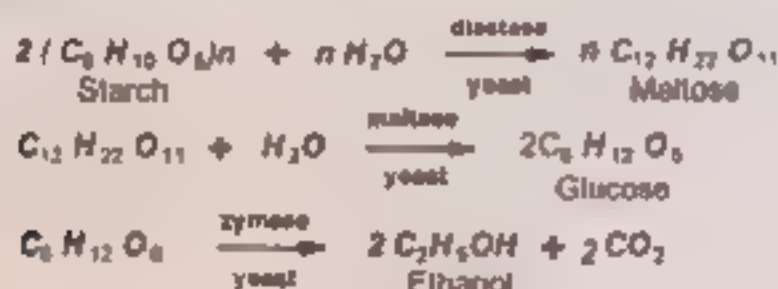
From Molasses

The residue obtained after the crystallization of sugar from concentrated sugar cane juice is called molasses.

It is fermented by enzymes present in yeast to give ethanol



From starch



Collection of Ethanol

- An alcohol obtained by fermentation is only upto 12%.
- It never exceeds 14% because above this enzymes become inactive.
- This alcohol is distilled again and again to obtain 95% alcohol which is called rectified spirit.
- Absolute alcohol is obtained by re-distillation of rectified spirit in the presence of CaO, which absorbs moisture.

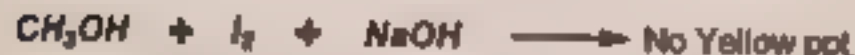
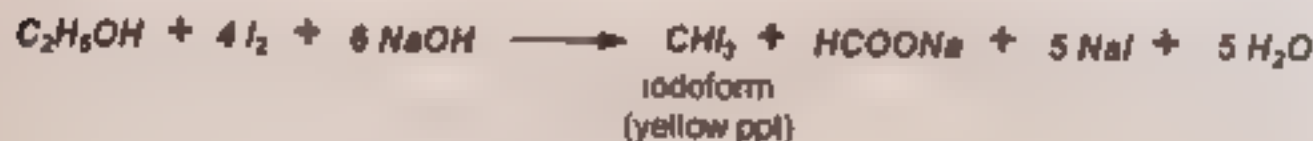
2. Distinguish ethanol from methanol and ethanol from phenol.

Methanol and Ethanol

These can be distinguished by Iodoform test

Ethanol gives yellow ppt of iodoform on reacting with NaOH and I_2

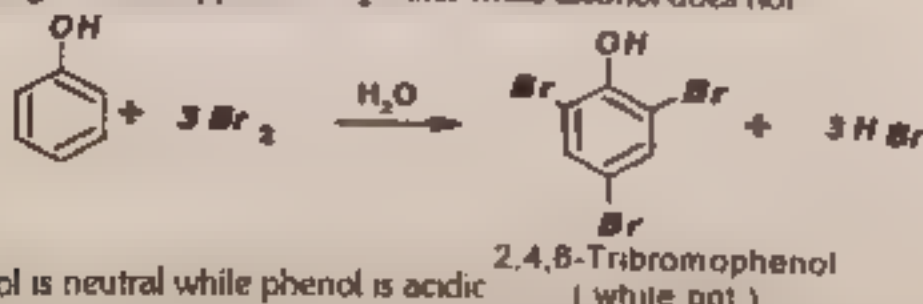
Methanol does not give yellow ppt of iodoform with NaOH and I_2



Phenol and Ethanol

These can be distinguished by following ways

- Phenol gives white ppt with Br_2 water while alcohol does not

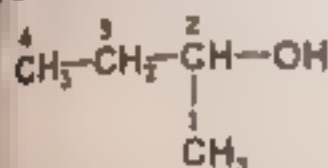


- Alcohol is neutral while phenol is acidic
- Phenol gives deep purple colour with $FeCl_3$ while alcohol does not

5. How will you distinguish between primary, secondary and tertiary alcohols? Explain with reactions.
See Page 274

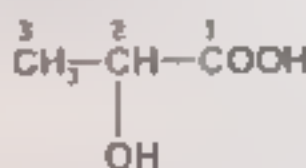
4. Give IUPAC names and structures of the following compounds

(i) *sec*-Butyl alcohol



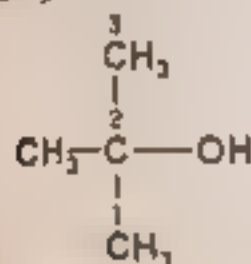
2-Butanol

(ii) Lactic acid



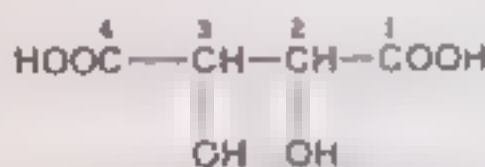
2-Hydroxypropanoic acid

(iii) *ter*-Butyl alcohol



2-Methyl 2-propanol

(iv) Tartaric acid



2,3-Dihydroxybutanedioic acid

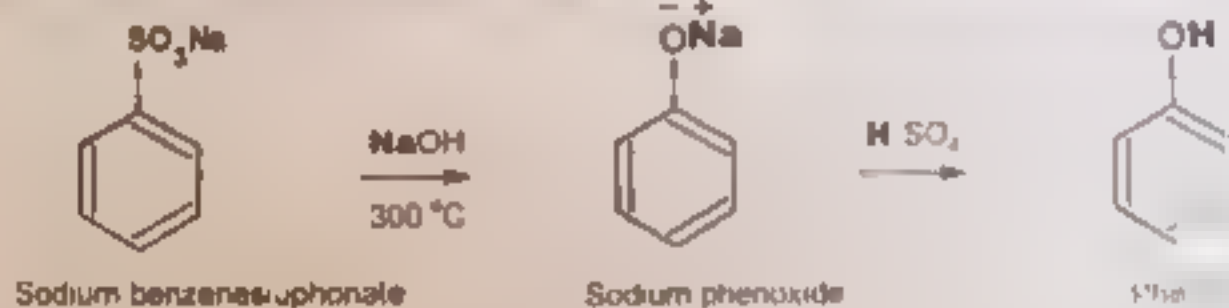
5. Give the reactivity of ethers

- The etheral O atom is a region of high electron density due to its lone pairs.
- Ether oxygen atoms are Lewis bases.
- Like an alcohol -OH group, the -OR group is a poor leaving group. It needs to be converted to a leaving group before substitution can occur.
- The most important reaction of ethers is their cleavage by strong acids such as H⁺ or HI.

6. Give at least two methods for the preparation of phenol

(i) **Reaction of Benzene Sulfonic Acid with Hydroxide**

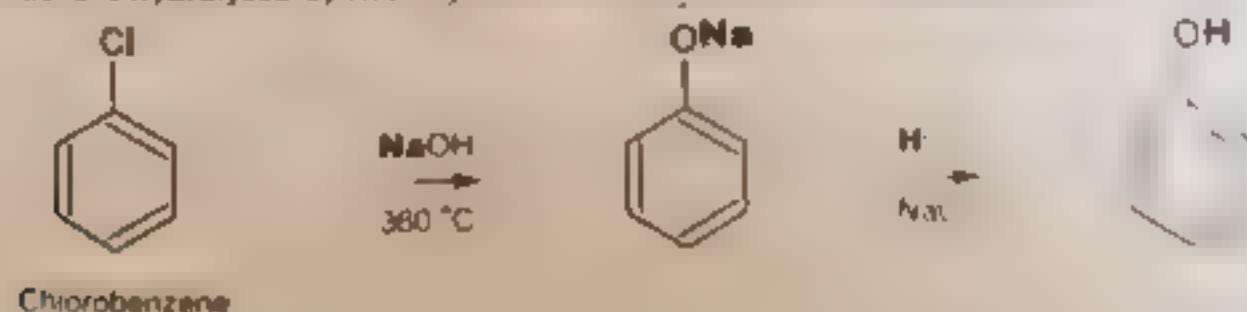
Sodium benzene sulphonate on fusion with strong alkali gives phenoxide.



- At such a high temperature, side reactions also occur.

(ii) **Base Hydrolysis of Chlorobenzene**

Chlorobenzene is hydrolyzed by heating with NaOH at 360°C and under pressure.

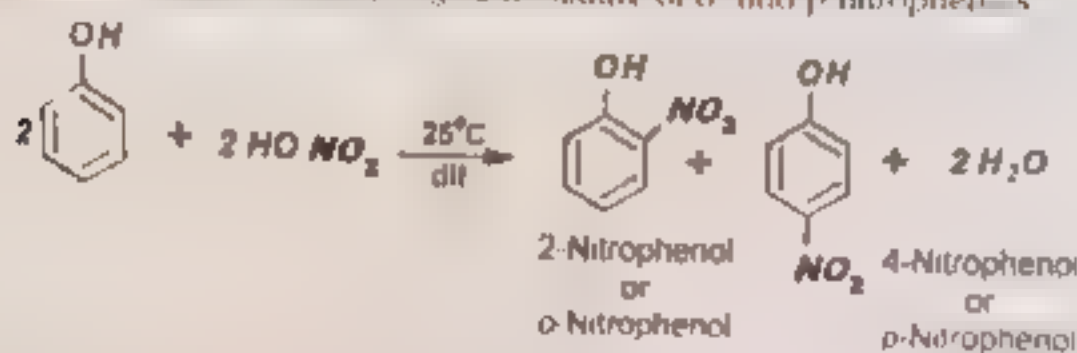


CH 18 Alcohols Phenols and Ethers

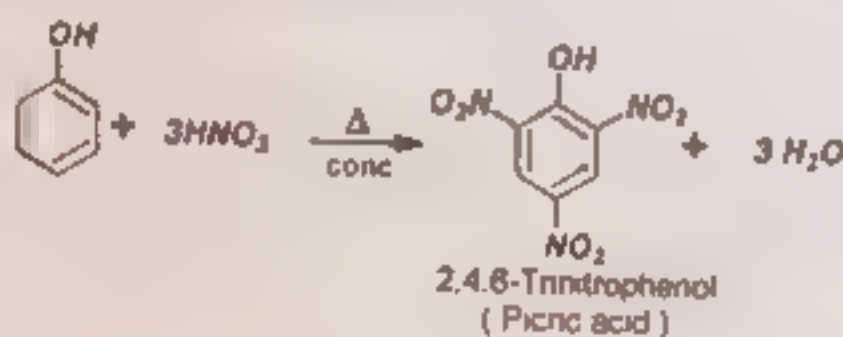
7 How does phenol react with

(i) HNO_3

Phenol reacts with dil. HNO_3 to give a mixture of o- and p-nitrophenols

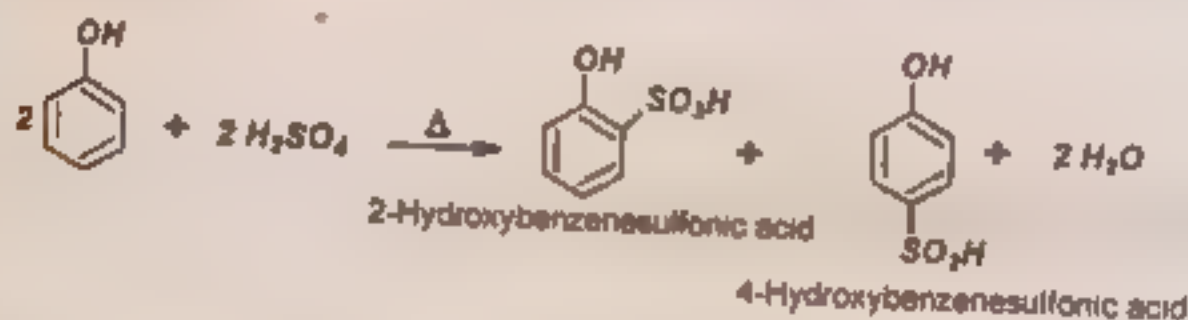


Phenol reacts with conc. HNO_3 to give picric acid



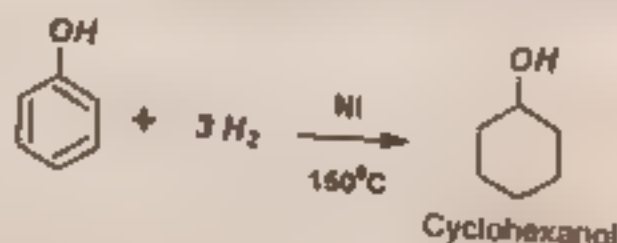
(ii) H_2SO_4

- Phenol reacts with conc. H_2SO_4 at room temperature to give o- and p-hydroxybenzenesulfonic acids
- At 20°C o-isomer is formed in greater percentage, while at 100°C , p-isomer is formed in greater percentage



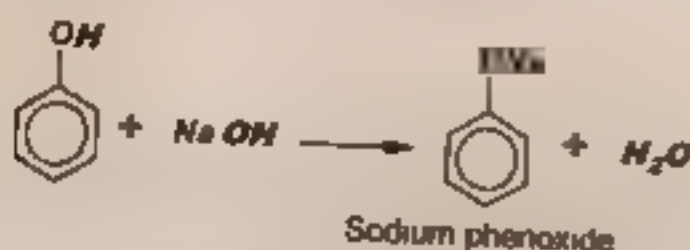
(iii) H_2/Pt

When hydrogen is passed through phenol at 150°C in the presence of Ni catalyst it gives cyclohexanol



(iv) NaOH

Phenol reacts with alkalis to form salts, e.g.



8 What is oxonium ion? Describe the chemical reactivity of ether.

A species with trivalent oxygen and carrying a positive charge on oxygen is called an oxonium ion

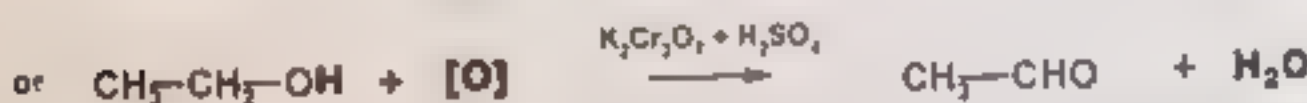
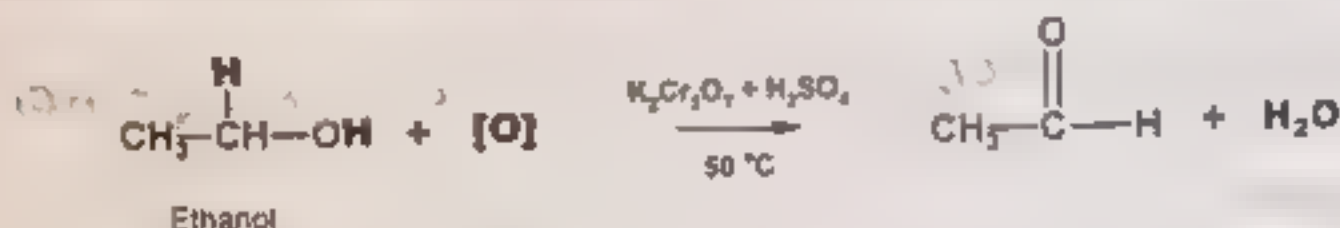


(For reactivity of ether see Q5)

9 Explain following terms using ethyl alcohol as an example

(i) Oxidation

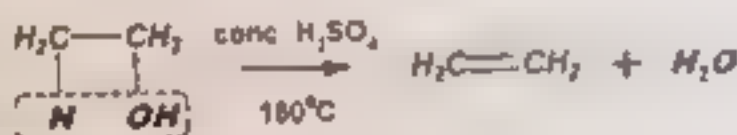
A primary alcohol is first oxidized to an aldehyde which is further oxidized to a carboxylic acid



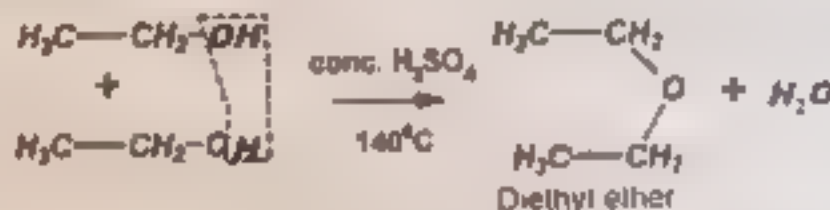
(ii) Dehydration

Alcohols react with conc. H_2SO_4 and give different products at different temperatures

High temperature, low alcohol conc.



Low temperature, high alcohol conc.

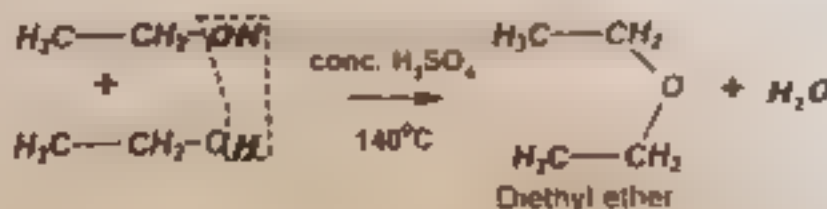


(iii) Esterification

Esters are obtained by refluxing the parent carboxylic acid with the appropriate alcohol in the presence of an acid catalyst

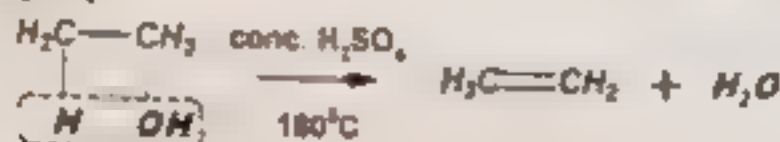


(iv) Ether formation



10 How does ethyl alcohol react with the following reagents?

(i) Conc H_2SO_4



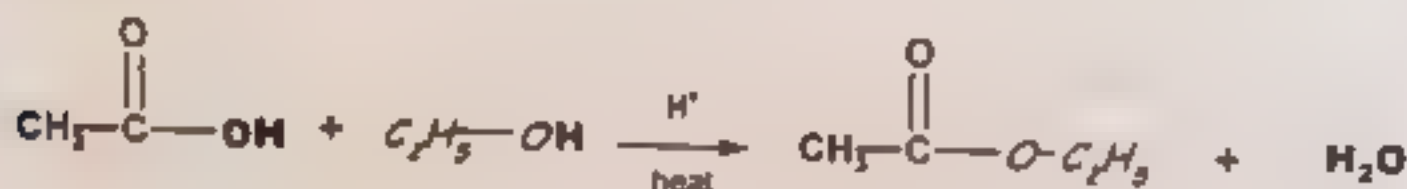
(ii) Na



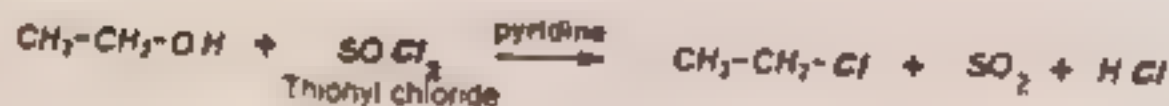
(iii) PCl_5



(iv) CH_3COOH



(v) $SOCl_2$

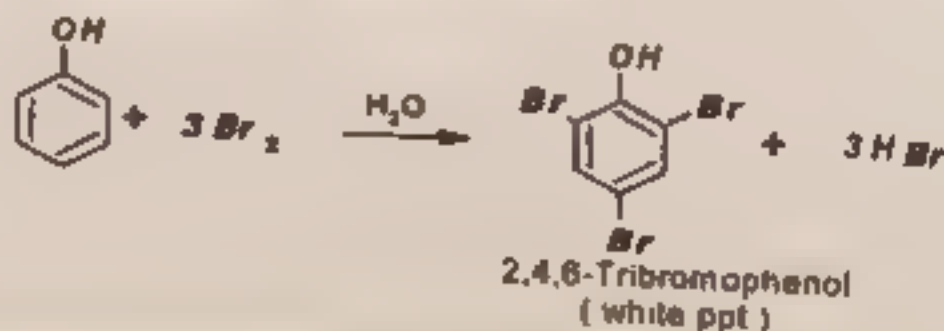


11 How will you distinguish between?

(i) an alcohol and a phenol

These can be distinguished by following ways

- Alcohol is neutral while phenol is acidic
- Phenol gives white ppt with Br_2 water while alcohol does not



- Phenol gives deep purple colour with $FeCl_3$ while alcohol does not.

(ii) **an alcohol and an ether**

These can be distinguished by following test

Alcohols evolve H_2 gas with Na metal while ether does not

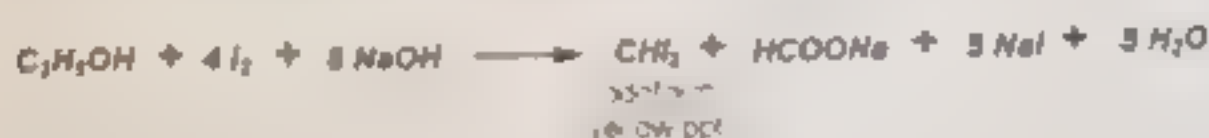


(iii) **methanol and ethanol**

These can be distinguished by following test

Ethanol gives yellow ppt of CHI_3 with I_2 and $NaOH$

Methanol does not give yellow ppt of CHI_3 with I_2 and $NaOH$



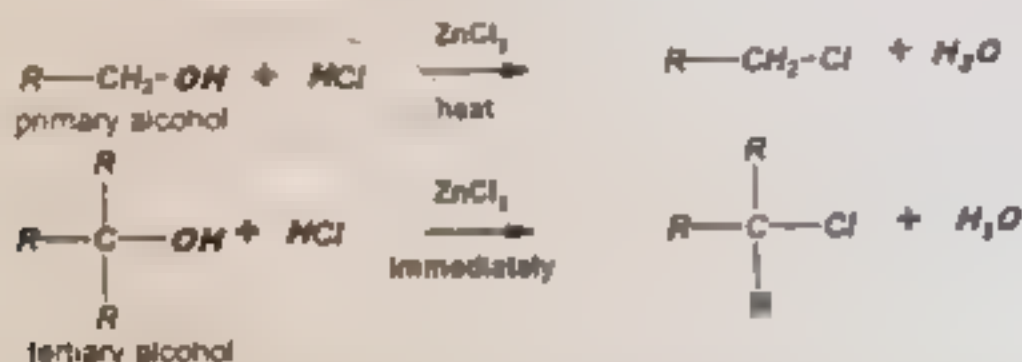
(iv) **a tertiary alcohol and a primary alcohol**

These can be distinguished by Lucas Test

When Lucas reagent ($HCl + ZnCl_2$) is added to an alcohol

Tertiary alcohol forms oily layer of alkyl halide immediately

While primary alcohol forms oily layer only on heating



(v) **1-propanol and 2-propanol**

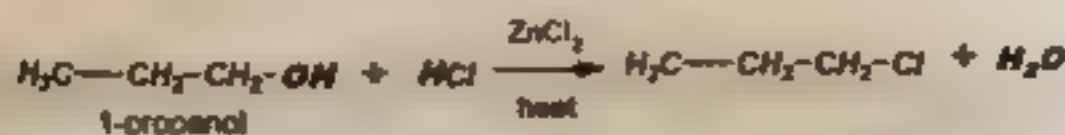
1-propanol is primary alcohol while 2-propanol is secondary alcohol. These can be distinguished by Lucas test

When Lucas reagent ($HCl + ZnCl_2$) is added to an alcohol

2-propanol forms oily layer of alkyl halide within 5 - 10 minutes.



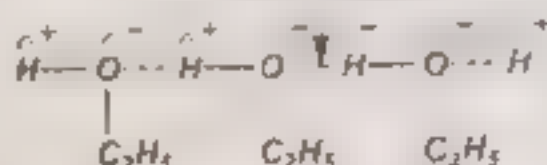
While 1-propanol forms oily layer only on heating



12 Give reason for the followings

(i) Ethyl alcohol is a liquid while ethyl chloride is a gas.

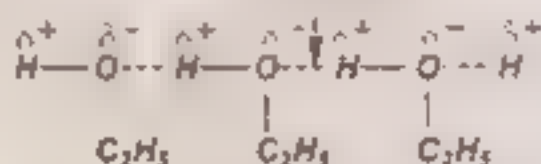
Ethyl chloride has weak dipole-dipole forces.



Due to strong H-bonding in ethanol, its molecules are tightly held together. Thus ethanol is a liquid while ethyl chloride is gas.

(ii) Ethanol has higher boiling point than diethyl ether.

Ethanol has strong hydrogen bonding, while diethyl ether has only weak dipole-dipole forces.



Due to strong H-bonding in ethanol, its molecules are tightly held together. Thus it is difficult to break ethanol than diethyl ether. Hence ethanol has higher boiling point than diethyl ether.

(iii) Absolute alcohol cannot be prepared by fermentation process.

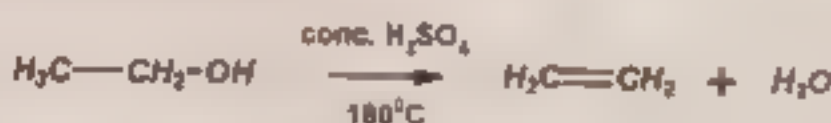
Absolute alcohol can not be obtained by fermentation process. It is because at higher conc. of alcohol, the enzyme of yeast becomes inactive and process stops.

Actually alcohol obtained by fermentation process is only upto 12%. This alcohol is further concentrated by distillation to about 95% called rectified spirit. Rectified spirit is further distilled with benzene to get absolute alcohol.

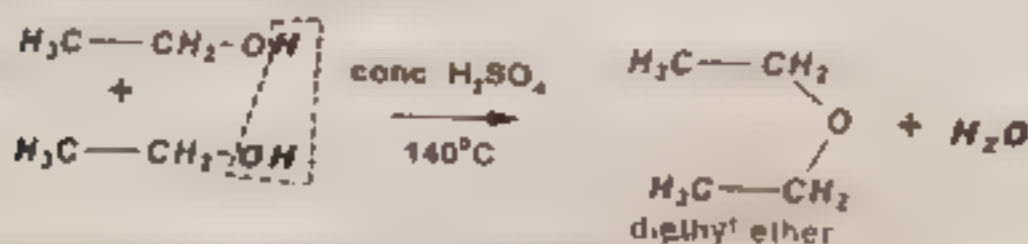
(iv) Ethanol gives different products with conc. H_2SO_4 under different conditions.

Ethanol gives two types of product in different conditions.

High temperature, low alcohol conc.

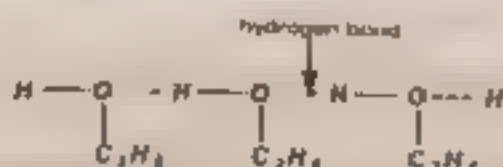


Low temperature, high alcohol conc.



(v) Water has higher boiling point than ethanol.

In water, two hydrogen bonds are formed per molecule while in ethanol only one hydrogen bond is formed per molecule. Thus due to extensive hydrogen bonding in H_2O , its boiling point is greater than ethanol.



TEST YOUR SKILLS

Marks: 85

OBJECTIVE

Marks: 17

20 Minutes

Over writing, cutting, erasing, using lead pencil will result in loss of marks. Circle the correct option i.e. A/B/C/D. Each part carries one mark.

Which one is the general formula for monohydric alcohols?

- A. $C_nH_{2n}OH$ B. $C_{n+1}H_{2n+1}OH$ C. $C_{2n}H_{2n+1}OH$ D. $C_nH_{2n-1}OH$

Rectified spirit contain alcohol at about

- A. 90% B. 100% C. 95% D. 85%

Fermentation of starch to give alcohol occurs mainly with the help of

- A. O_2 B. Air C. CO_2 D. Enzymes

The compound 'B' in the following sequence of reaction is

- $CH_3CH_2CH_2OH + PCl_5 \rightarrow A + alc. KOH \rightarrow B$
A. Propyne B. Propene C. Propane D. Propanol

Phenol react with acetyl chloride in the presence of a base to form an

- A. Acid B. Alcohol C. Citric acid D. Ester

An industrial method for preparation of methanol is

- A. Catalytic reduction of $CO + 2H_2$ in the presence of $ZnO \cdot Cr_2O_3$
B. By reacting methane with steam at $900^\circ C$ with a Ni-catalyst
C. By reducing $HCHO$ with aqueous $NaOH$ solution
D. By reducing $HCHO$ with $LiAlH_4$ followed by hydrolysis

Ethanol is denatured by adding

- A. Methanol B. Acetone C. Propanol D. All of the above

Phenol is also known as

- A. Carbollic acid B. Carbonic acid C. Carboxylic acid D. None

Alcohols of low molecular weight are

- A. Soluble in water B. Soluble in water on heating C. Insoluble in water D. Insoluble in all solvents

Methyl alcohol is not used

- A. as a solvent B. as an anti freezing agent
C. as a substitute for petrol D. for denaturing of ethyl alcohol

When Phenol reacts with CH_3COCl the product formed is

- A. Ether B. Alcohol C. Aldehyde D. Ester

Williamson's synthesis of ethers is superior to alcohols because it makes

- A. Symmetrical ethers B. Asymmetrical ethers
C. Either at room temperature D. Both symmetrical and asymmetrical ethers

Diphenyl ether is also called

- A. Phenoxyl benzene B. Benzoyl benzene C. Hexosyl benzene D. Phenoxyl ether

Hydrogen bonding is maximum in

- A. Ethanol B. Diethyl ether C. Ethyl chloride D. Triethyl amine

What is product in the following sequence of operations?

- $Chlorobenzene + NaOH \rightarrow A + HNO_3 (conc) \rightarrow product$
A. o-nitrophenol B. p-nitrophenol C. both a and b D. picric acid

Which one of the following compounds does not contain carboxylic group

- A. Acetic acid B. Formic acid C. Picric acid D. Benzoic acid

(xviii) In a reaction $C_6H_5O-C_6H_5 + HI \rightarrow X$, then X should be

- A. C_6H_5OH only B. C_6H_5I C. C_6H_5OH and C_6H_5I D. No reaction

SUBJECTIVE

Total Marks Section B and C: 68

Section - B (Marks 42) (14 x 3 = 42)

Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not exceed 5 to 6 lines.

There are different structural isomers of formula C_4H_9OH

- a. Draw the structures of the four Alcohols of formula C_4H_9OH 02
b. Classify these isomers as primary, secondary or tertiary 01

Ethanol is prepared on industrial scale world over

- a. Name the process, temperature and enzymes used for the above process when ethanol is prepared from the starch with equations. 02
b. Only 12% alcohol can be prepared by this process. Why? 01

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Section - C

Q. 3. Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. (2 × 13 = 26)

- Q. 3. (a) What happens when 04
- Phenol is treated with acetyl chloride
 - Ethanol is reacted with ethyl magnesium bromide
 - Diethyl ether is reacted with PCl_5
 - Ethyl bromide is heated with silver oxide
- (b) Give IUPAC names and structures of the following compounds. 05
- sec-butyl alcohol
 - Lactic acid
 - ter-butyl alcohol
 - Tartaric acid
 - Diphenyl ether
- c. What is an Esterification reaction? 02
- d. What are simple and mixed ethers? 02
- Q. 4. a. Show by reaction and diagram the industrial preparation of Methanol 03
- b. How does phenol reacts with 04
- HNO_3
 - H_2SO_4
 - H_2/Ni
 - NaOH
- c. How does methanol reacts with 04
- SOCl_2
 - PCl_5
 - NH_3
 - CH_3COCl
- d. Give four uses of phenol 02
- Q. 9. a. Explain hydrogen bonding in alcohols, phenols and ethers? 03
- b. What is oxonium ion? How it can be generated from ethers? 03
- c. How may alcohols be oxidized? 03
- d. Carry out the following conversions 04
- Benzene to cyclohexanol
 - Ethanol to ethyl iodide

CHAPTER # 19

ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

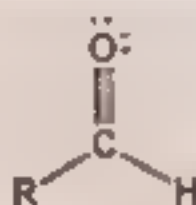


INTRODUCTION

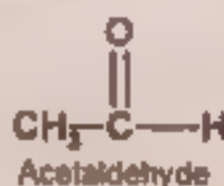
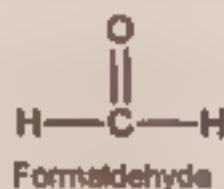
Organic compounds containing the carbonyl functional group are called aldehydes and ketones.

ALDEHYDES

Functional Group: In aldehydes, the C-atom of carbonyl group is directly attached to at least one H-atom.
Structure Formula: An aldehyde may be represented by the general formula structure

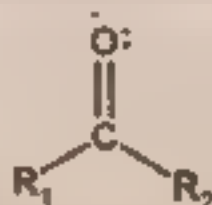


General Formula: The homologous series of aldehydes have general formula $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n}\text{O}$
Occurrence: Aldehyde groups are present in most sugars. They are the principal constituents of a number of essential oils used as fragrances and flavors.
Examples:

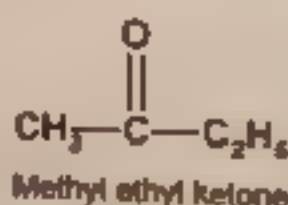
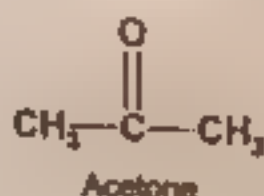


KETONES

Functional Group: In ketones, the C-atom of carbonyl group is bonded to two carbon atoms called ketone group.
Structure Formula: A ketone may be represented by the general formula structure



General Formula: The homologous series of ketones have general formula $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n}\text{O}$
Occurrence: Ketonic group is present in camphor and fructose.
Examples:

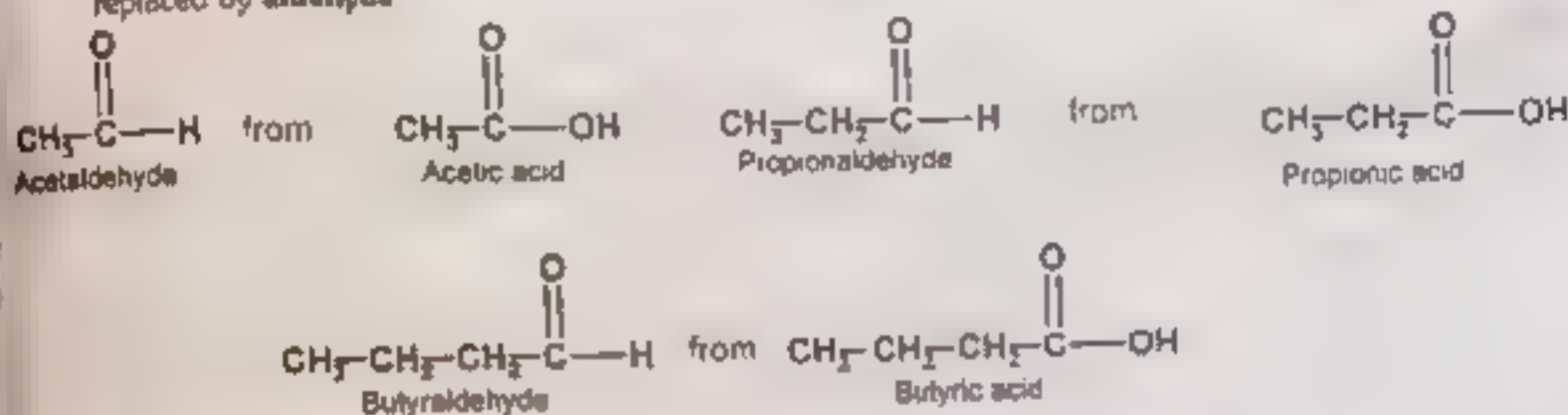


NOMENCLATURE:

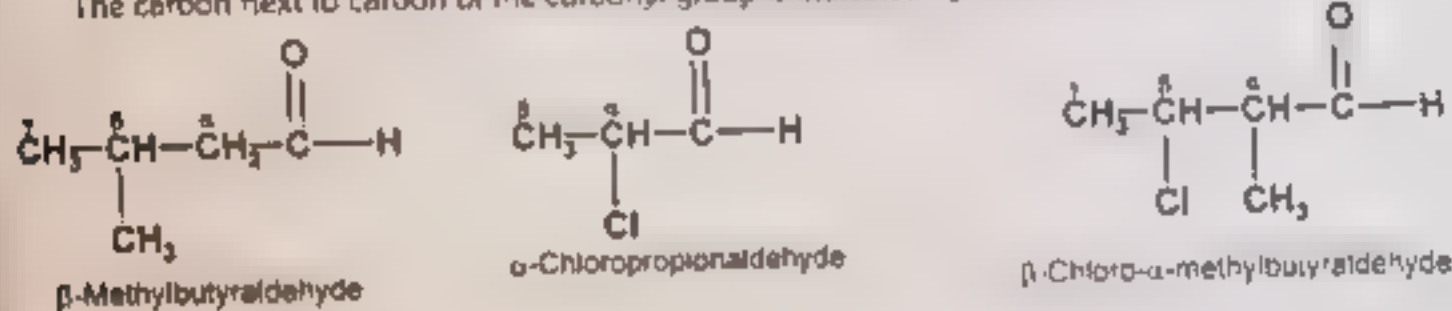
ALDEHYDES

(a) COMMON NAMES:

- An aldehyde is named after the name of carboxylic acid obtained on its oxidation. the ending -ic acid is replaced by aldehyde



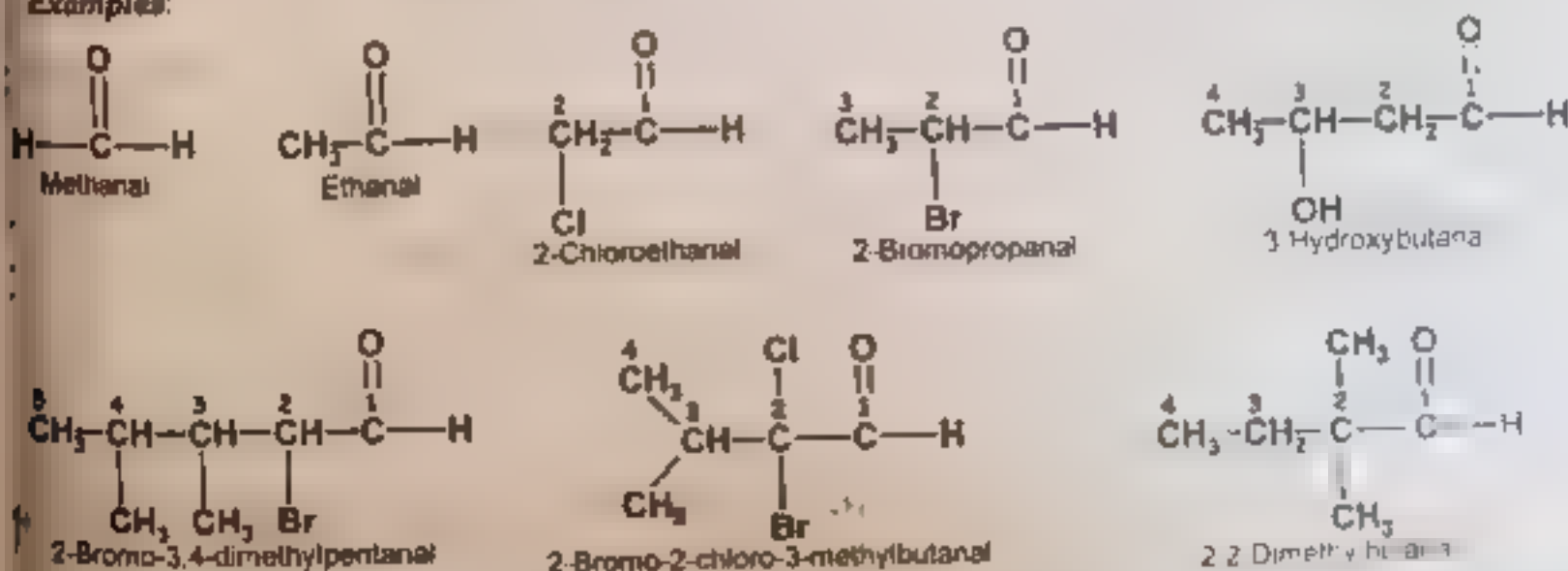
- For naming substituted aldehyde the chain is labeled by using α , β , γ etc. The carbon next to carbon of the carbonyl group is indicated by α and so on

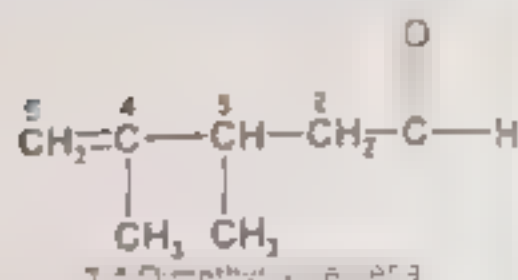
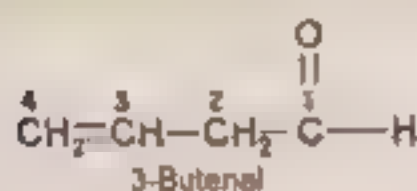


(b) IUPAC NAMES:

- The longest carbon chain containing the aldehydic group is taken as the parent hydrocarbon
- The ending e of the alkane is replaced by al
- The numbering starts from the carbon atom of the carbonyl group. The carbon atom of aldehydic group is always carbon number 1
- The position of the substituent is indicated by numbers which is written before their number

Examples:

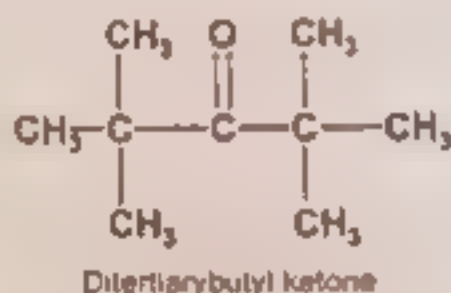
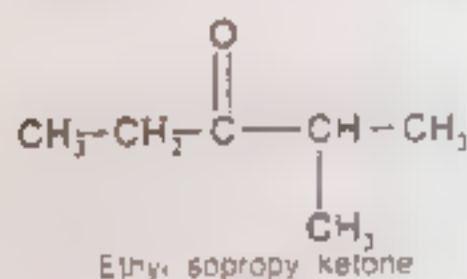
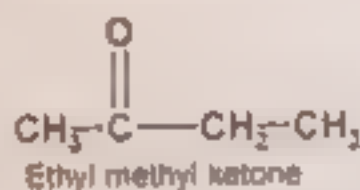
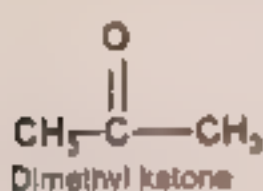




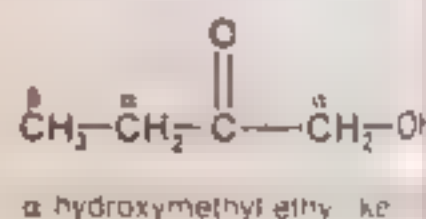
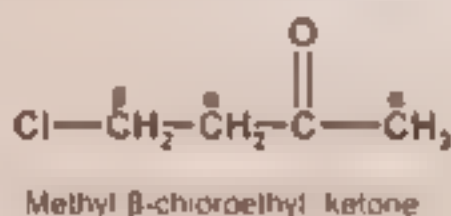
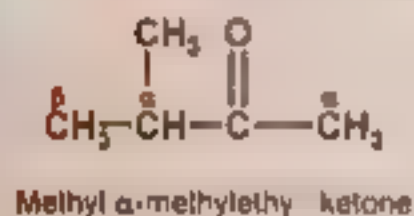
KETONES

(a) COMMON NAMES

- Ketones are named by adding the word ketone after the name of the parent hydrocarbon. The carbonyl carbon is indicated by 'a' and so on, e.g.

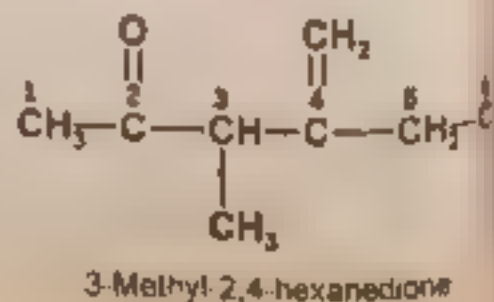
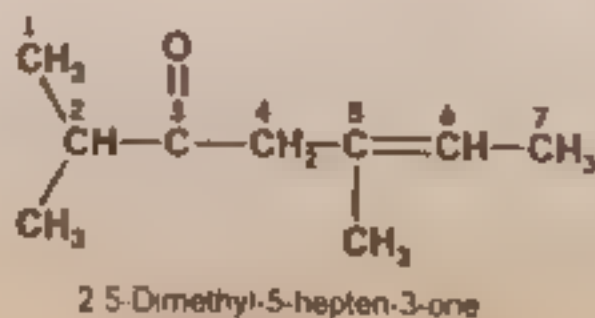
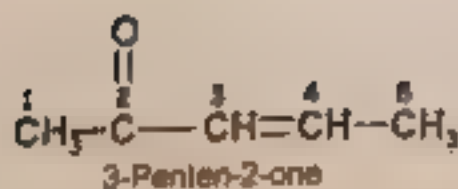
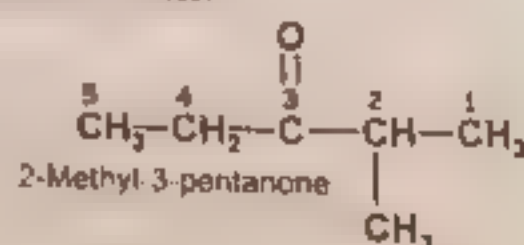
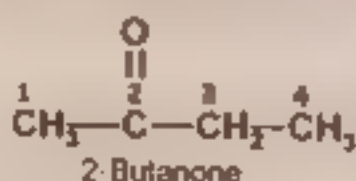
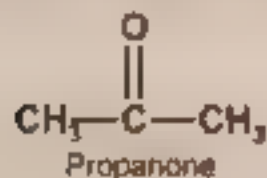


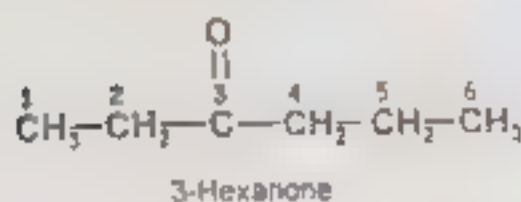
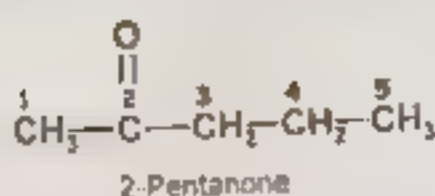
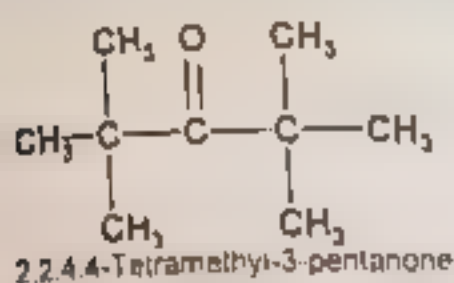
- Substituted ketones are named by labeling the chain using α , β , γ , etc. The carbon next to the carbonyl group is indicated by 'a' and so on, e.g.



(b) IUPAC NAMES

- The longest chain containing the carbonyl group is taken as parent hydrocarbon.
- The ending e of hydrocarbon is replaced by one.
- The numbering starts from the end that gives the carbonyl carbon the lower number. In cyclic ketone, carbonyl carbon is number 1.
- The positions of substituents are indicated by numbers before their names.

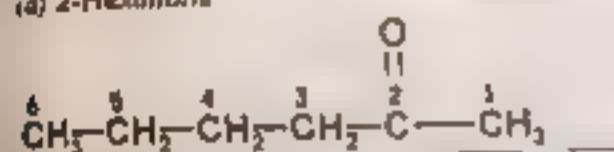




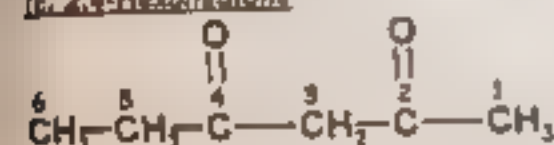
QUICK QUIZ-1

(i) Write the structures of the following compounds

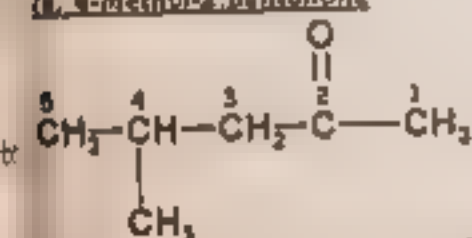
(a) 2-Hexanone



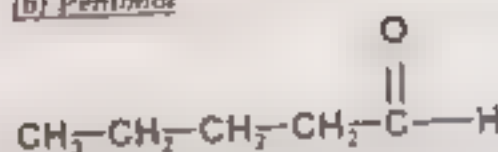
(c) 2,4-Hexanedione



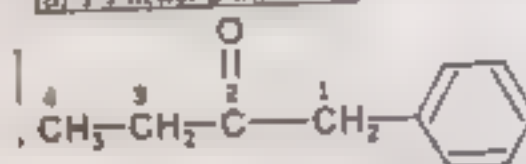
(e) 4-Methyl-2-pentanone



(b) Pentanal



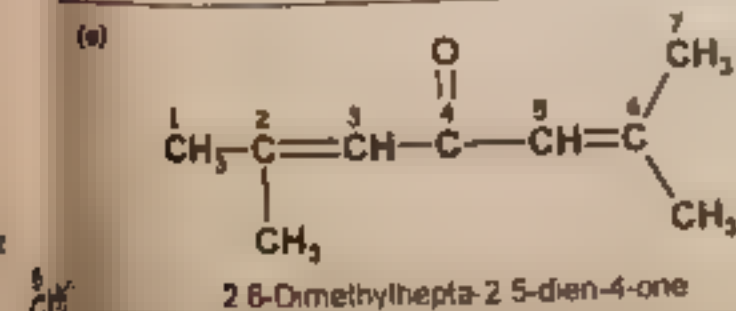
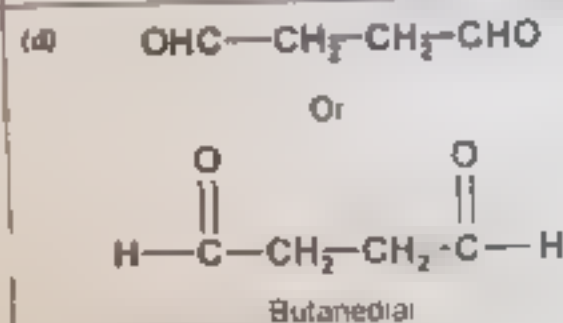
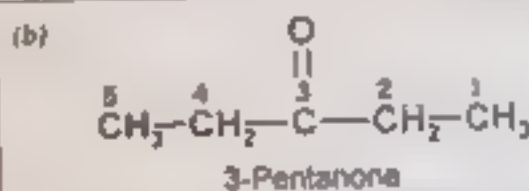
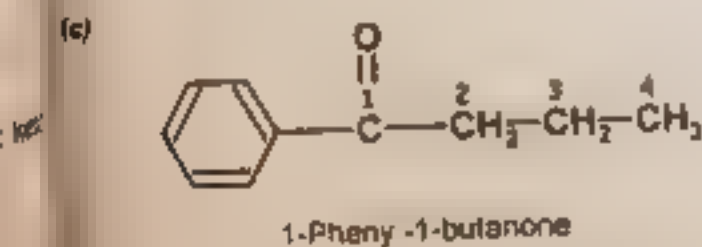
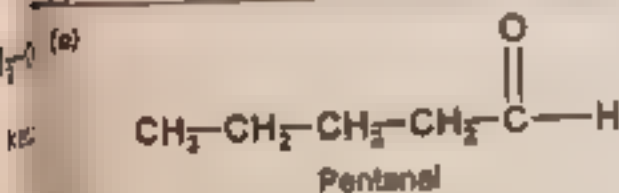
(d) 1-Phenyl-2-butanone

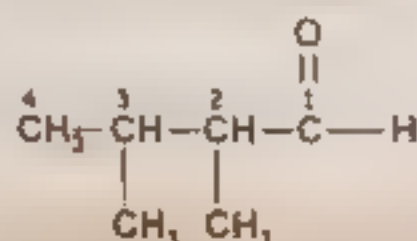


(f) 1-Phenyl-3-(2-methoxyphenyl)-1,3-propanedione

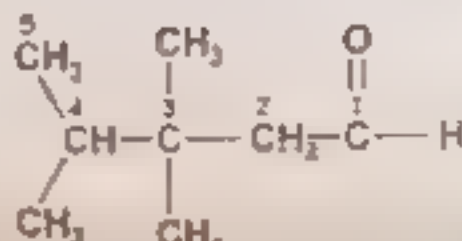
Incorrect Name. There is no propanedione

(ii) Give the IUPAC names of the followings

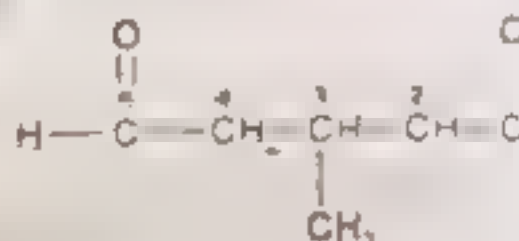
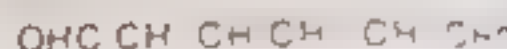


MORE PRACTICE**ALDEHYDES**

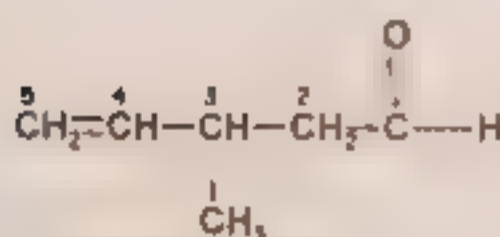
2,3-Dimethylbutanal



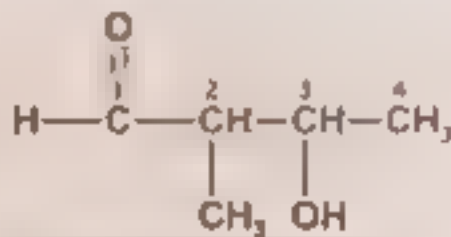
3,3,4-Trimethylpentanal



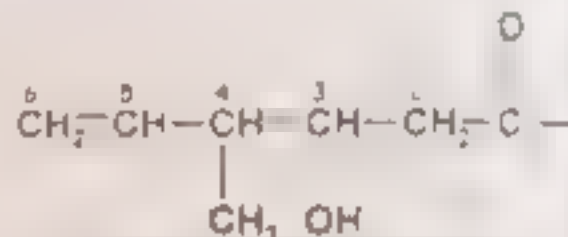
3-Methylpentanedial



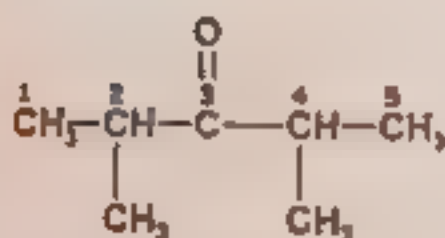
3-Methyl-4-pentenal



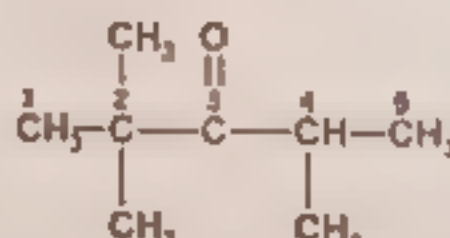
3-Hydroxy-2-methylbutanal



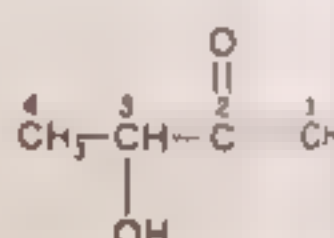
2-Hydroxy-4-methyl-5-penal

KETONES

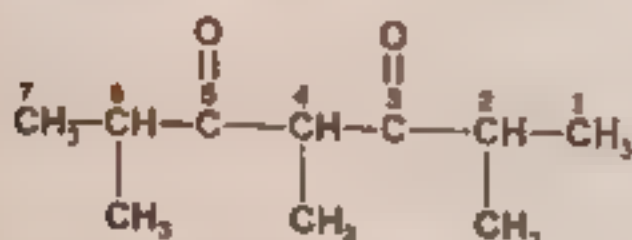
2,4-Dimethyl-3-pentanone



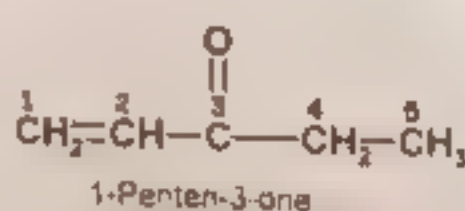
2,2,4-Trimethyl-3-pentanone



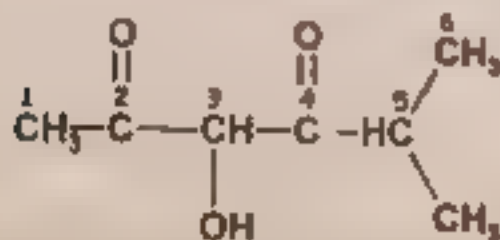
3-Hydroxy-2-butanone



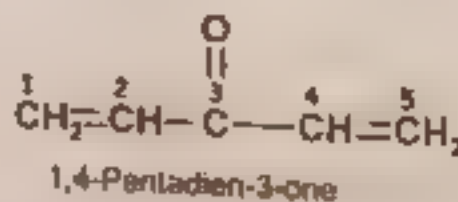
2,4,6-Trimethyl-3,5-heptanedione



1-Penten-3-one



3-Hydroxy-5-methyl-2,4-hexanedione



1,4-Pentadien-3-one

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

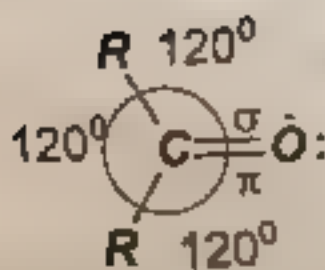
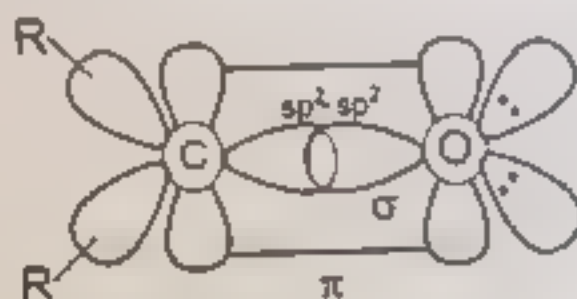
- The $C=O$ bond has polar nature due to the electronegativity difference of the atoms
- The polar nature of the $C=O$ means that dipole-dipole interactions will occur
- The $C=O$ bonds cannot form hydrogen bond with each other. However, the $C=O$ can accept hydrogen bonds from hydrogen bond donors (e.g. water, alcohols)

The results of these effects are

- higher melting and boiling points compared to analogous alkanes
- lower boiling points than analogous alcohols
- more soluble than alkanes but less soluble than alcohols in aqueous media

STRUCTURE

- The carbonyl group consists of an O atom bonded to a C atom via a double bond
- In carbonyl group both carbon and oxygen are sp^2 hybridized
- A sigma bond is formed between C and O by the overlap of sp^2 hybrid orbitals of C & O
- Two lone pairs of oxygen are present in two sp^2 hybrid orbitals while carbon uses its two sp^2 hybrid orbitals to form bond with other groups like alkyl groups (R)
- Both C and O contain one unhybridized p-orbital each which overlap sideways to form a pi-bond
- Three groups attached to the carbonyl carbon lie in same plane with bond angles of approximately 120°



- Electron density between C and O is not equally shared.
- Oxygen due to its greater electronegativity, attracts charged cloud more towards itself. As a result, oxygen acquires δ^- charge and C acquires δ^+ charge. Thus carbonyl group becomes polar.

PREPARATIONS OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

(I) OZONOLYSIS OF ALKENES



Reaction type Electrophilic Addition

• Overall transformation. $C=C$ to two $C=O$

• Reagents



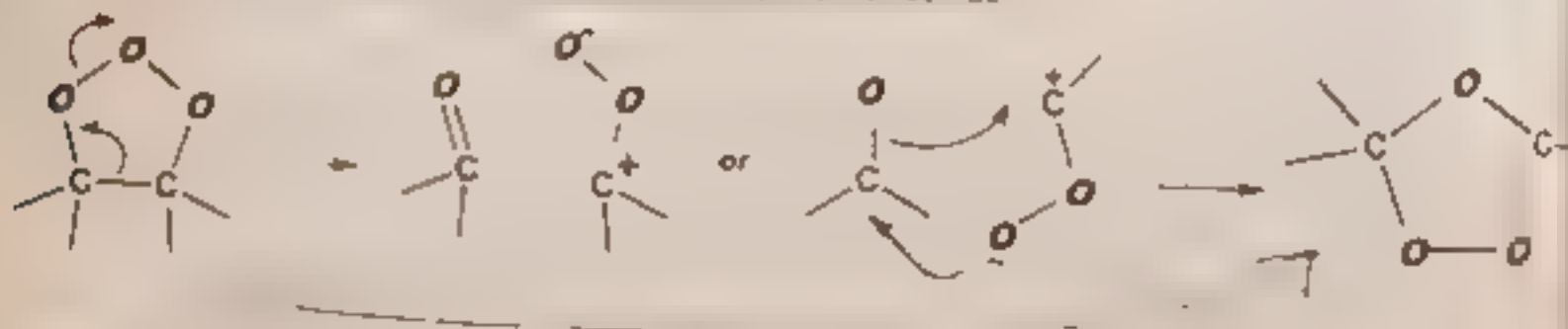
MECHANISM

Step 1



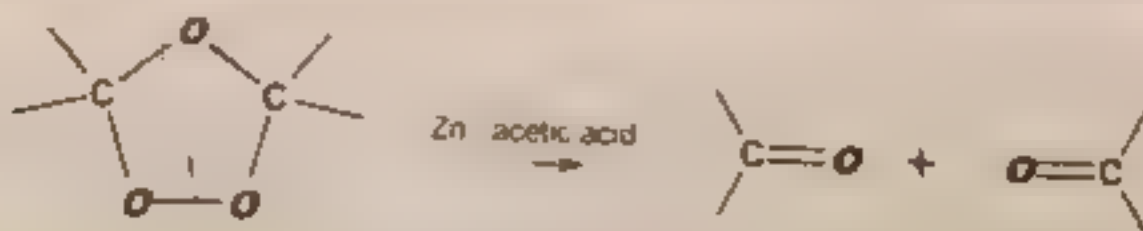
Step 2

The cyclic species called the molozonide rearranges to the ozonide



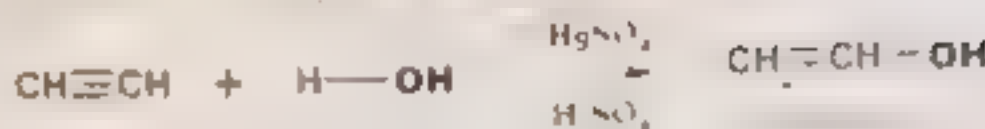
Step 3

On work-up usually Zn / acetic acid the malozonide decomposes to give two carbonyl compounds

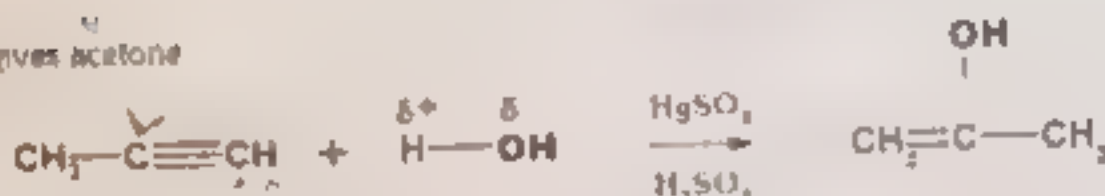


(2) HYDRATION OF ALKYNES

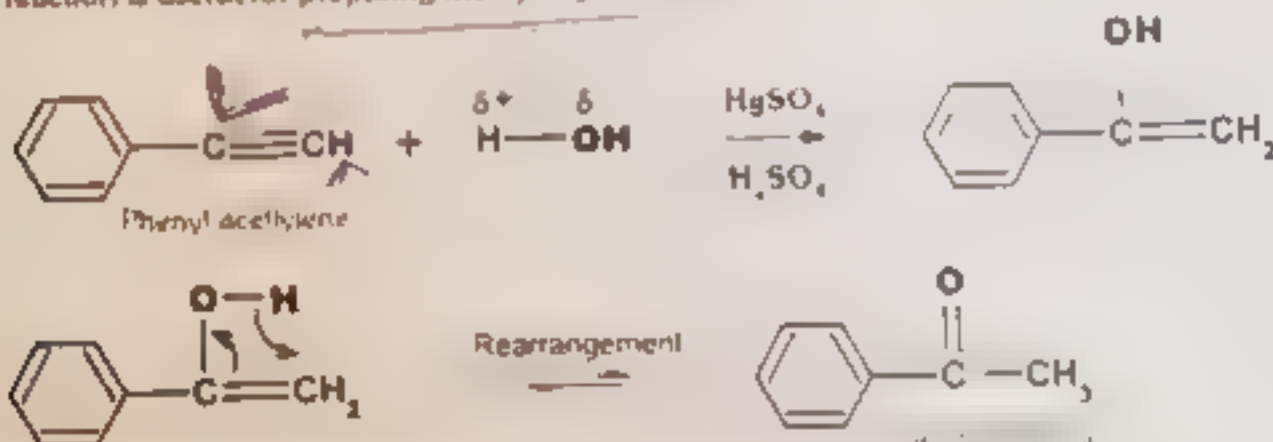
- Wave shows
- Enol forms as intermediate which dehydrates



- Propyne gives acetone

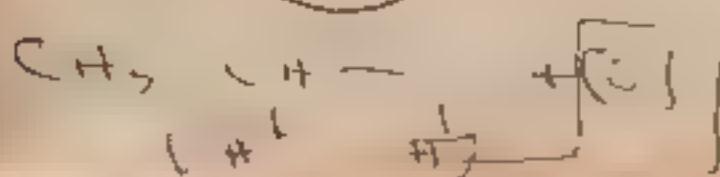
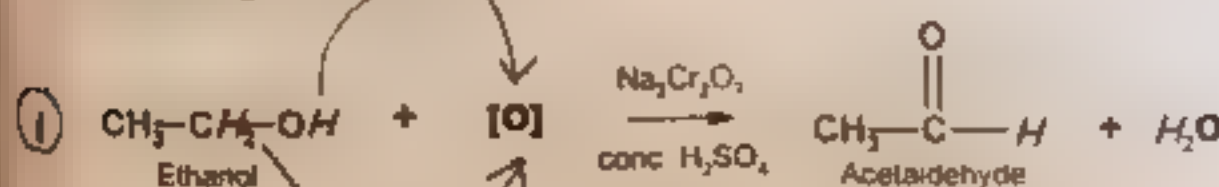


- This reaction is useful for preparing methyl aryl ketones



(3) OXIDATION OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY ALCOHOLS

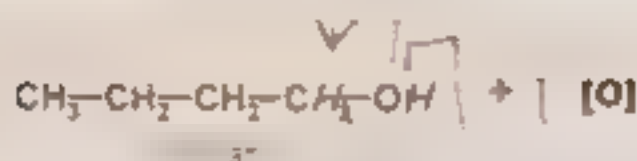
- Primary alcohols are oxidized to aldehydes by
 - warming with acidic dichromate solution or
 - Jone reagent ($\text{CrO}_3 + \text{dil. H}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{acetone}$) or
 - Sarett reagent (CrO_5 in pyridine)



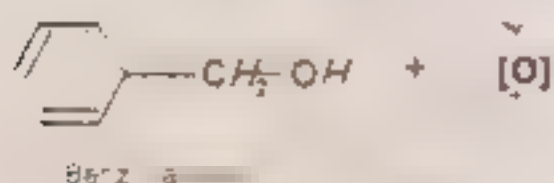
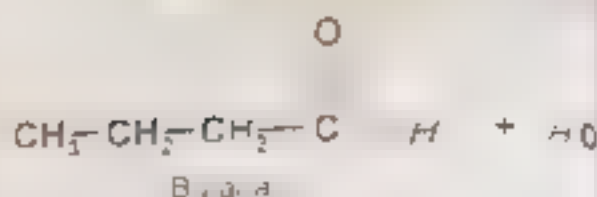
CH 9: Aldehydes and Ketones

III

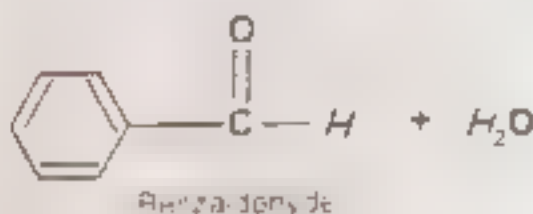
Change of functional group from alcohol to aldehyde



Strong oxidising agent

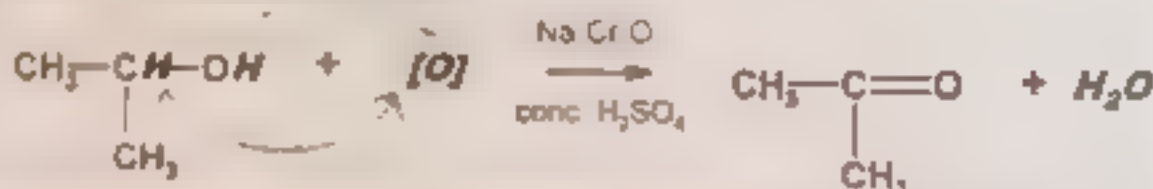


Strong oxidising agent



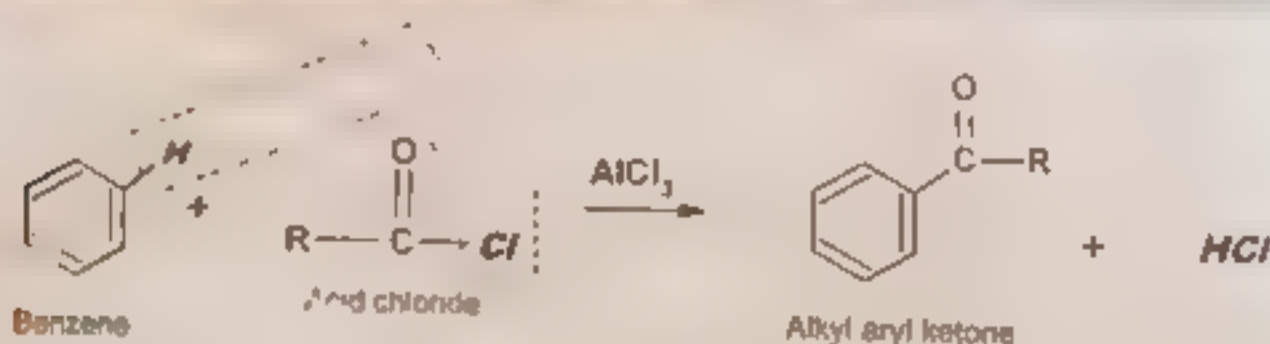
Primary alcohols are oxidised to aldehydes or carboxylic acids

Secondary alcohols are oxidised to ketones



(4) FRIEDEL-CRAFTS ACYLATION OF BENZENE

Reaction of benzene with acyl chloride in the presence of AlCl_3 to form alkyl aryl ketone

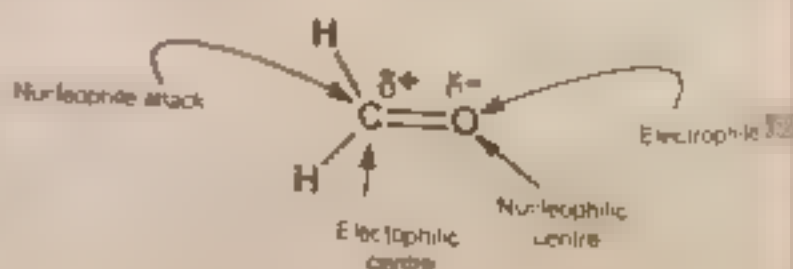


AlCl_3 generates an acylium ion $\text{R-C}^+=\text{O}$ electrophile which is substituted in the aromatic ring

Exercise Q3 (i) What is the reactivity of the carbonyl group?

REACTIVITY

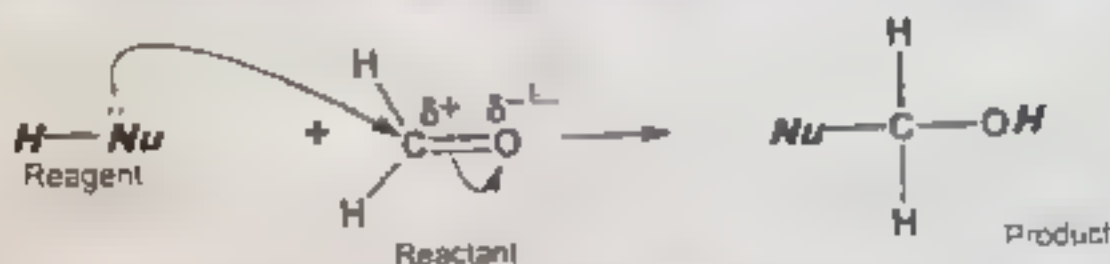
- The double bond of the carbonyl group has a σ bond and a π bond
- As oxygen is more electronegative, it attracts the π -electrons to itself. This attraction makes the carbonyl group a polar group.
- The oxygen atom has a partial negative charge and the carbon atom has partial positive charge
- Hence, it makes oxygen atom nucleophile and carbon atom becomes electrophile



REACTIONS OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

NUCLEOPHILIC ADDITION

The general reaction of nucleophilic addition is given below.



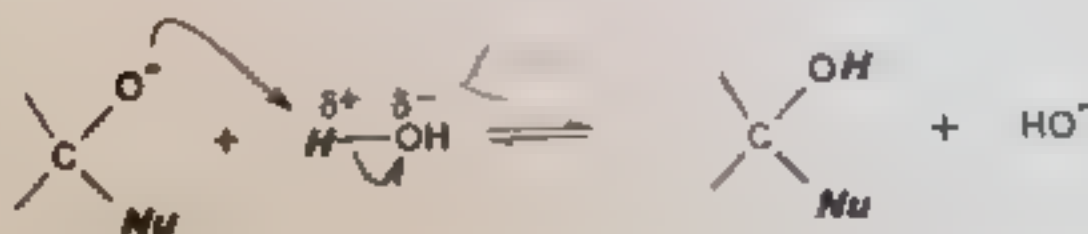
There are two types of nucleophilic addition reactions of carbonyl compounds

- (i) Base catalysed nucleophilic addition reaction
- (ii) Acid catalysed nucleophilic addition reaction

(i) BASE CATALYSED

- A base catalysed nucleophilic addition reaction takes place with a strong nucleophilic reagent
- The base reacts with the reagent and generates the nucleophile
- The addition is initiated by the attack of a nucleophile on the electrophilic carbon of the carbonyl group

GENERAL MECHANISM

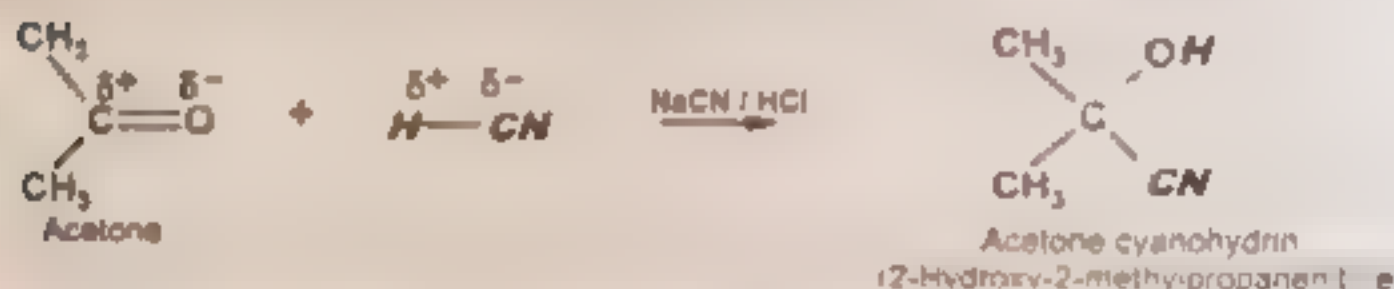
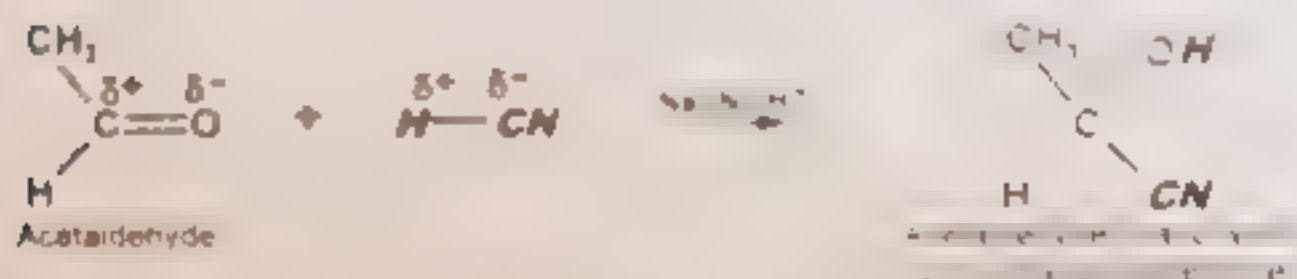
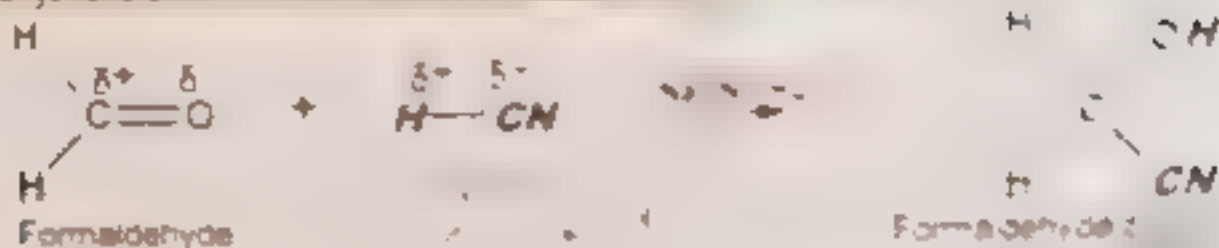


There are five types of base catalysed nucleophilic addition reactions of carbonyl compounds

- (1) Addition of hydrogen cyanide
- (2) Addition of Grignard's reagent
- (3) Addition of sodium bisulphate
- (4) Condensation reactions
- (5) Halohydrin reactions

19.1 ADDITION OF HYDROGEN CYANIDE

- Hydrogen cyanide adds to a carbonyl compound to form a cyanohydrin.
- The acid generated in the reaction is removed.



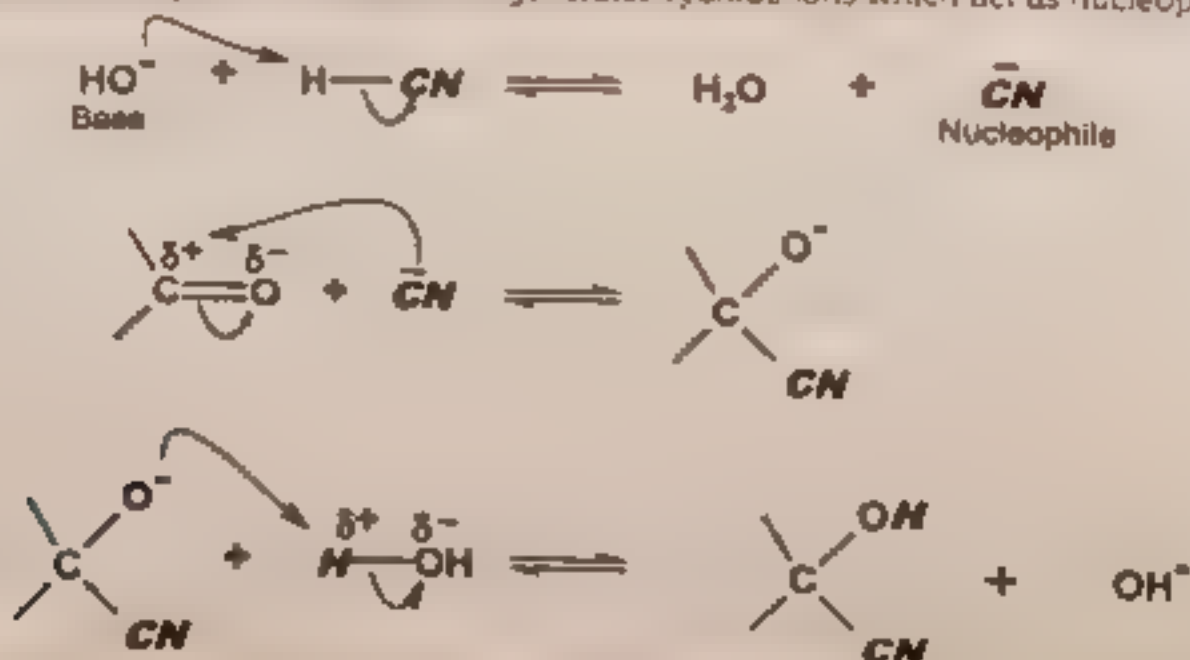
- The reaction is used in the synthesis of a hydroxy acid. These acids have a carbon atom more than the number of carbon atoms in the starting aldehydes or ketones.



Exercise Q2 (III) What is the mechanism of HCN addition to carbonyl compounds?

Mechanism

The reaction is base catalysed. The base OH^- generates cyanide ions which act as nucleophile.

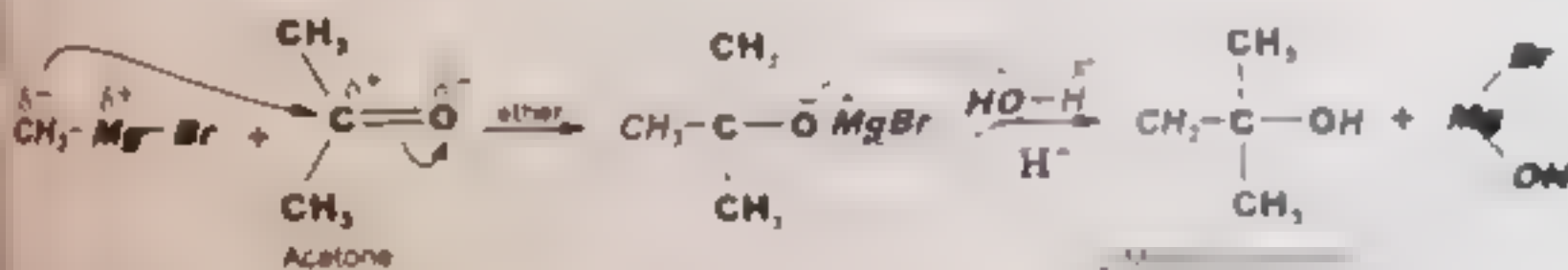
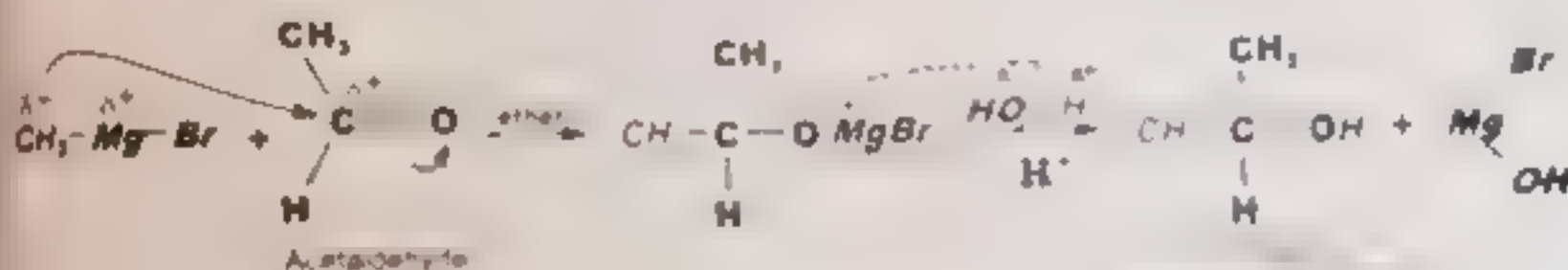
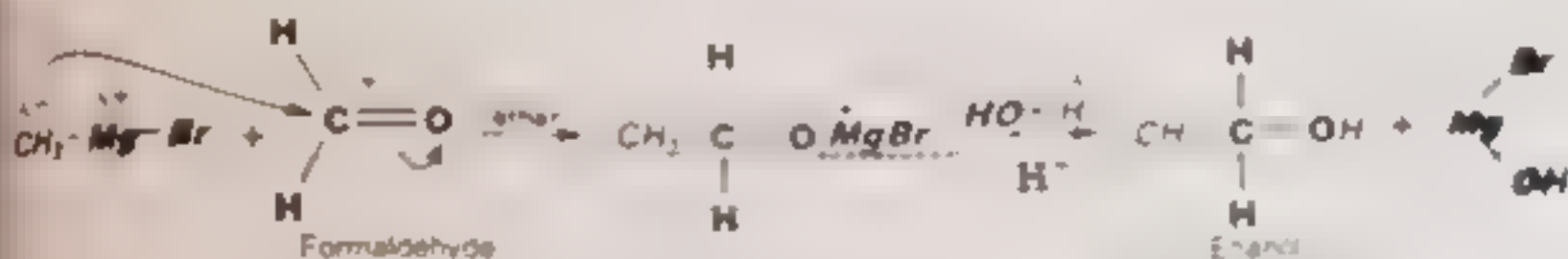


The hydroxide ion liberated reacts with undissociated hydrogen cyanide. Thus, it produces more cyanide ions, which in turn react with more carbonyl compound.

Exercise Q7 : What is the addition product of Grignard reagent to formaldehyde, acetaldehyde and ketone?

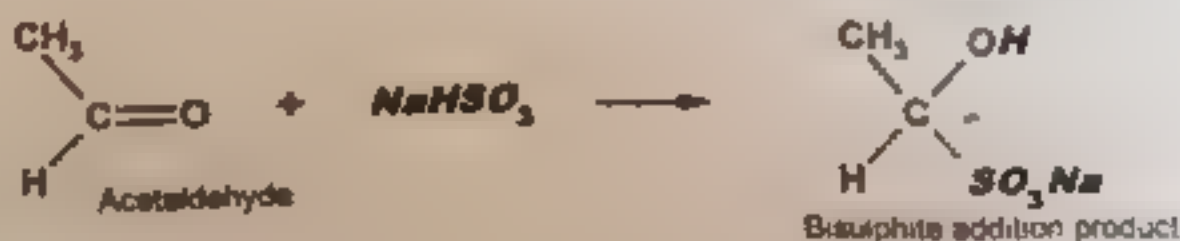
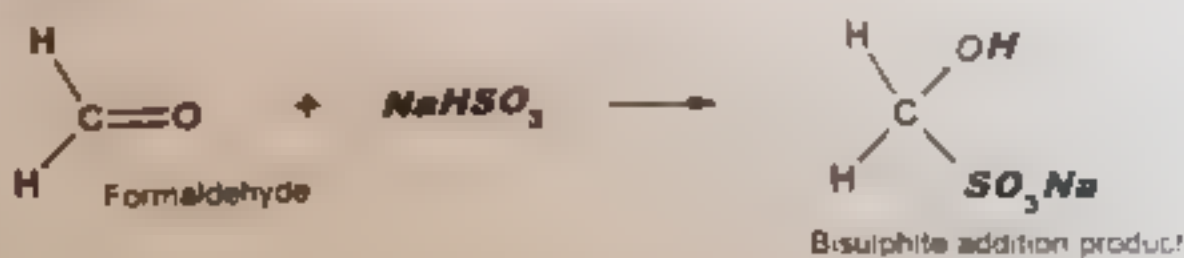
2) ADDITION OF GRIGNARD'S REAGENT

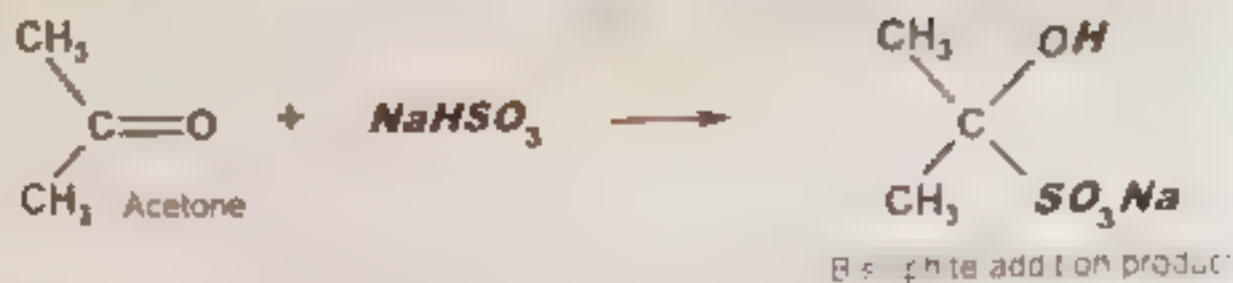
Grignard's reagents R-Mg-Br add to the carbonyl group of aldehydes and ketones to form an alkoxide intermediate. On addition of a dilute mineral acid give alcohols.



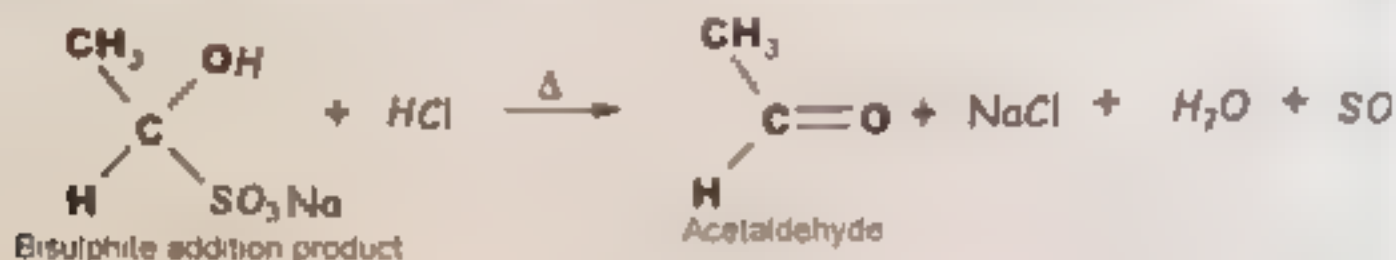
3) ADDITION OF SODIUM BISULPHATE

Aldehydes and small methyl ketones react with a saturated aqueous solution of sodium bisulphate to form a crystalline white precipitate of sodium bisulphite adduct.





- Bisulphite on heating a dilute mineral acid HCl or H_2SO_4 liberates the parent carbonyl compound.

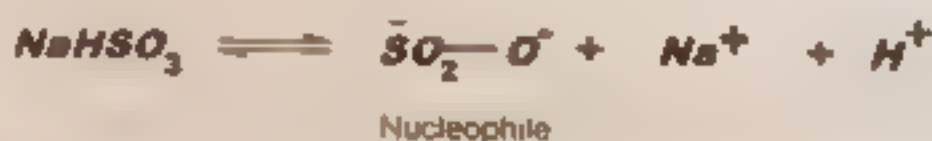


- The reaction is used for the separation and purification of carbonyl compounds from non carbonyl compounds such as alcohols.

Exercise Q2 (x) Give the mechanism of addition of sodium bisulphate to ketones

Mechanism

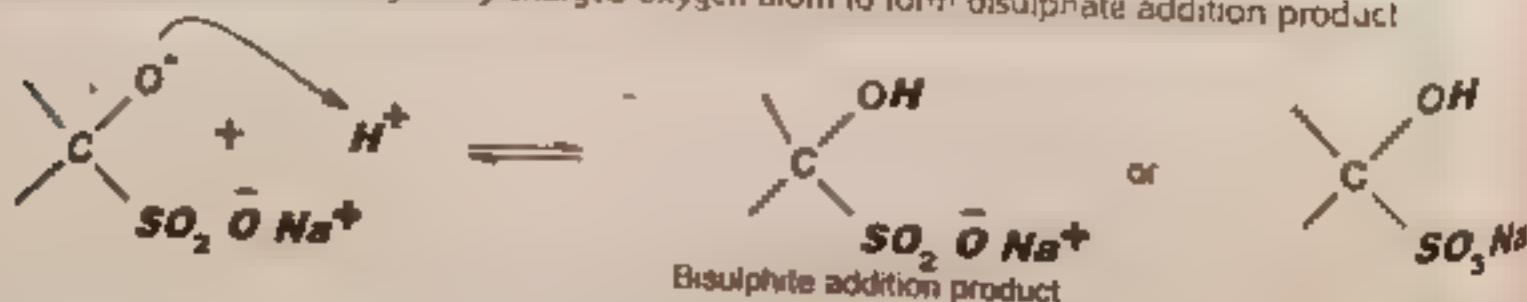
- Sodium bisulphate ionizes to form sulphate ions



- The sulphite ion acts as a nucleophile since the sulphur atom is more nucleophilic than oxygen, a C-S bond is formed.



- Proton is attached to the negatively charged oxygen atom to form bisulphate addition product



- Ketones in which both alkyl groups are larger than methyl do not react with sodium bisulphite

1) CONDENSATION REACTIONS

The reaction in which two molecules of the same or different compounds combine to form a new compound with or without the elimination of a small molecule like H_2O or NH_3 are called condensation reactions.

Exercise Q3 (b) Define and explain aldol condensation along with mechanism.

(a) ALDOL CONDENSATION

Aldol condensation is a reaction in which two molecules of same or different carbonyl compound containing α -hydrogen (hydrogen attached to the carbon atom next to carbonyl group) combine together to form aldol or ketol, which usually loses water molecule.

Mild Alkaline conditions.

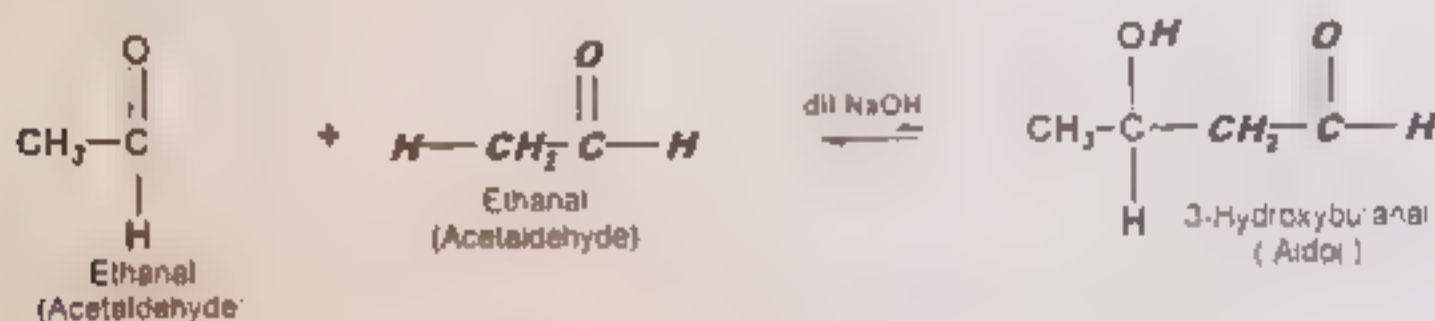
Aldol condensation takes place under mild alkaline conditions in the presence of sodium carbonate, sodium bicarbonate, barium hydroxide, calcium hydroxide, or potassium hydroxide.

Types:

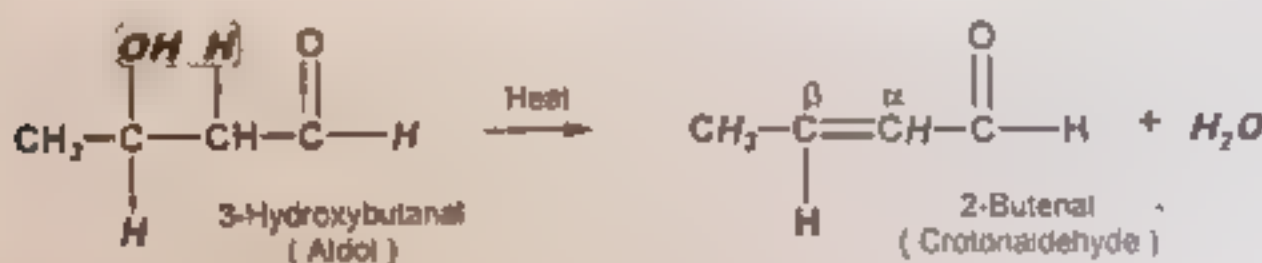
Aldol condensation can occur

- (i) Between two aldehydes (identical or different)
- (ii) Between an aldehyde and a ketone
- (iii) Between two ketones (identical or different)

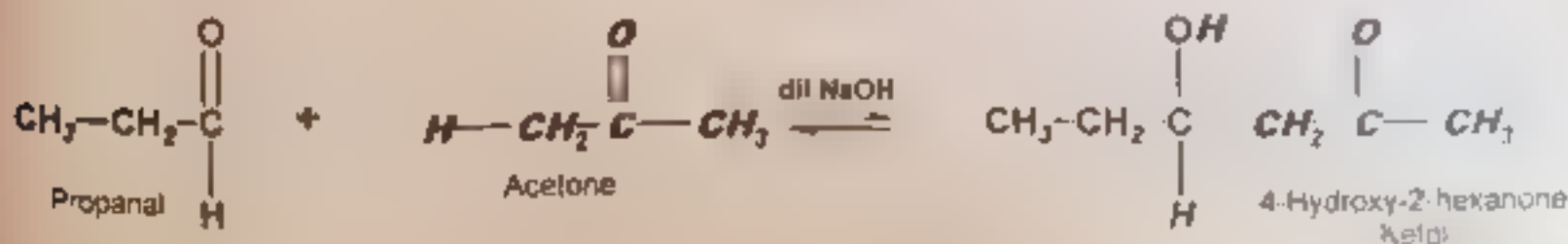
(i) Condensation between two aldehydes.



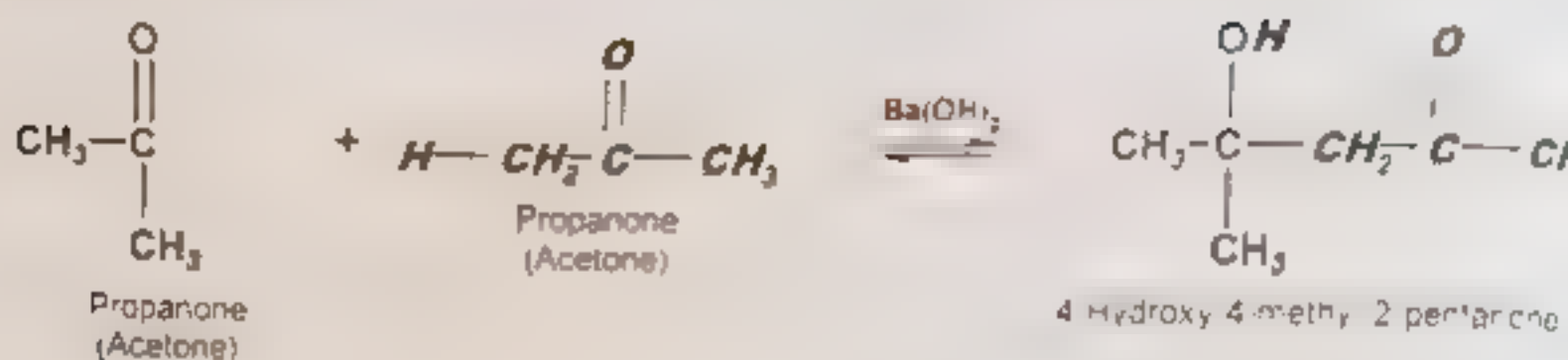
On heating aldol loses a molecule of water to form α , β -unsaturated aldehyde.



(ii) Condensation between aldehyde and ketone:



(III) Between two ketones

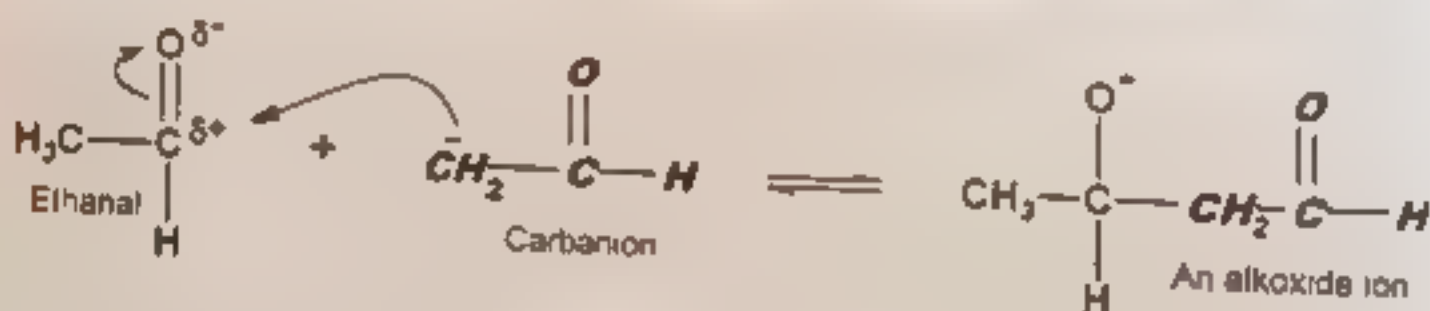
**Mechanism of Aldol Condensation:**

Following steps are involved in aldol condensation:

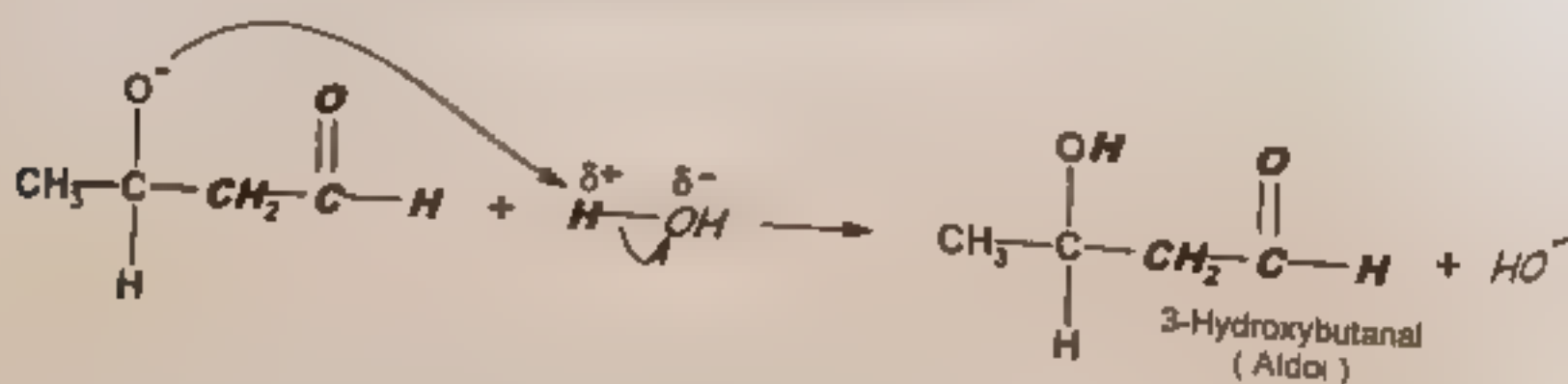
(1) Removal of a proton from α -carbon of a ketone by base. (Formation of carbanion)



(2) Attack of nucleophile on carbonyl carbon to form alkoxide ion. (Formation of alkoxide ion)



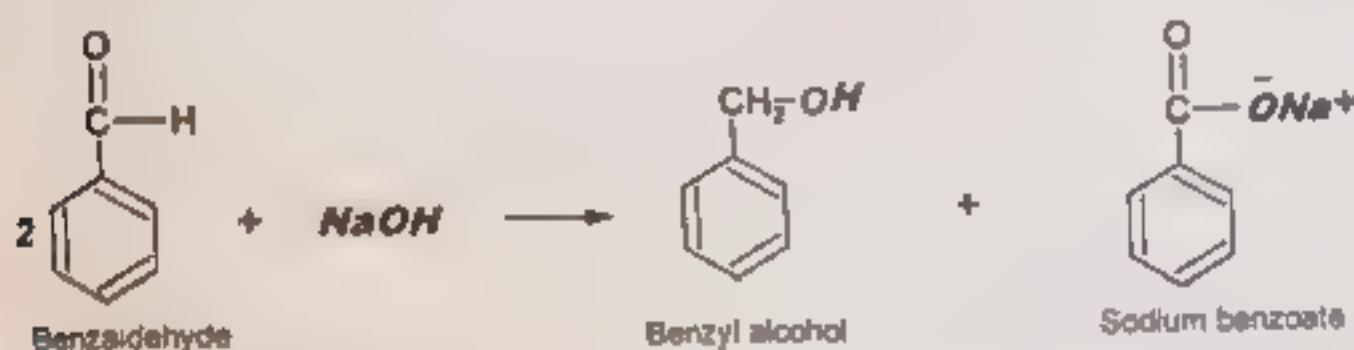
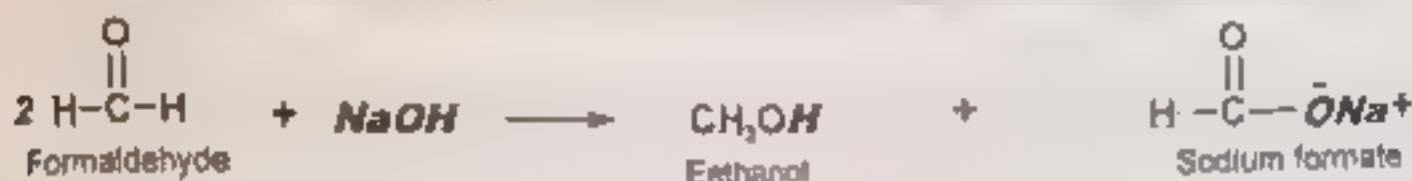
(3) Removal of proton from water by alkoxide ion. (Formation of aldol)



Exercise Q3 (iii) Which type of aldehydes give Cannizzaro's reaction? Explain with mechanism.

(b) CANNIZZARO'S REACTION

- Aldehydes having no α -hydrogen atoms undergo Cannizzaro's reaction.
- It is a disproportionate (self oxidation-reduction) reaction.
- Two molecules of the aldehyde are involved.
- One molecule is reduced into corresponding alcohol and the other is oxidized into the acid or the salt of an acid.
- The reaction is carried out with 50% aqueous solution of sodium hydroxide at room temperature.

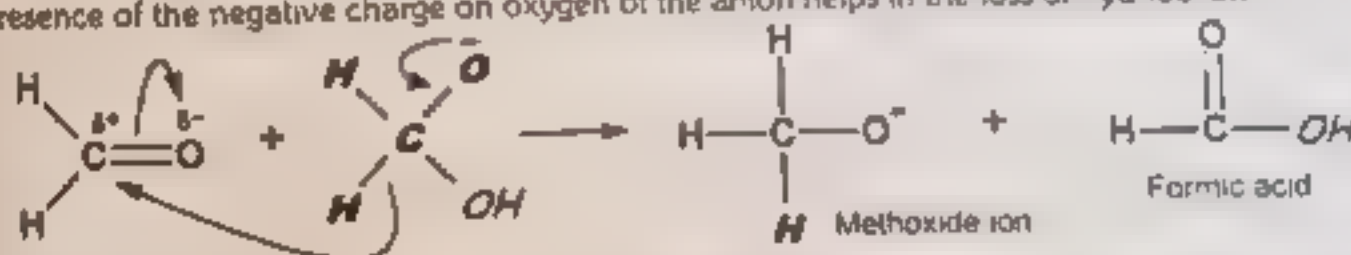


Mechanism of Cannizzaro's Reaction:

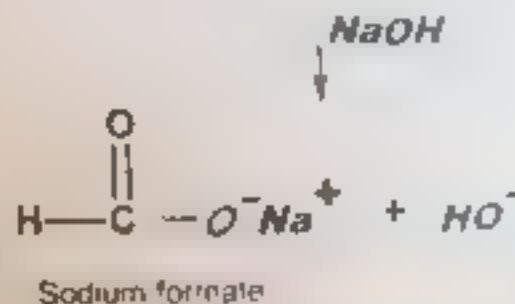
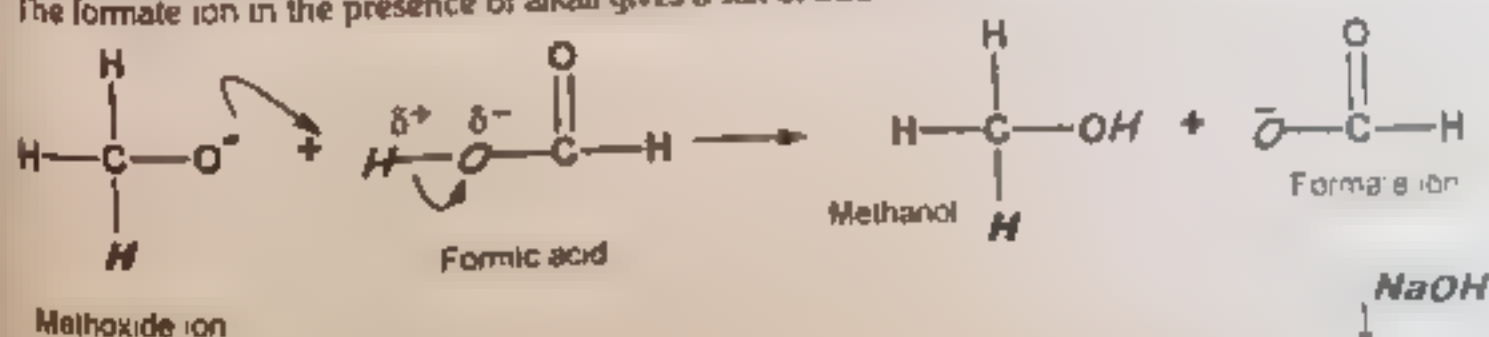
- The hydroxide ion acts as a nucleophile. It attaches on the electrophilic carbonyl carbon to form a complex anion.



- The anion transfers a hydride ion to second molecule of formaldehyde.
- The presence of the negative charge on oxygen of the anion helps in the loss of hydride ion.



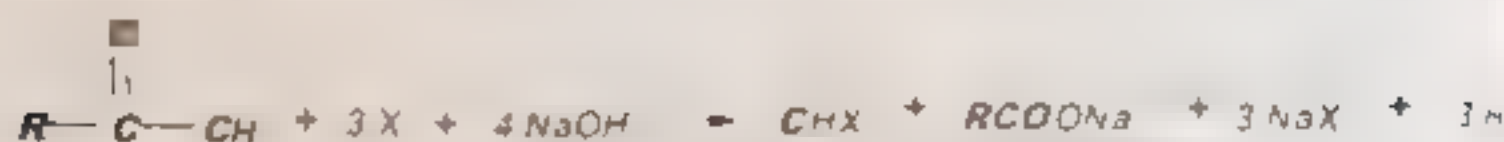
- The methoxide ion acts as a base and abstracts a proton from formic acid to form methanol and formate ion.
- The formate ion in the presence of alkali gives a salt of acid.



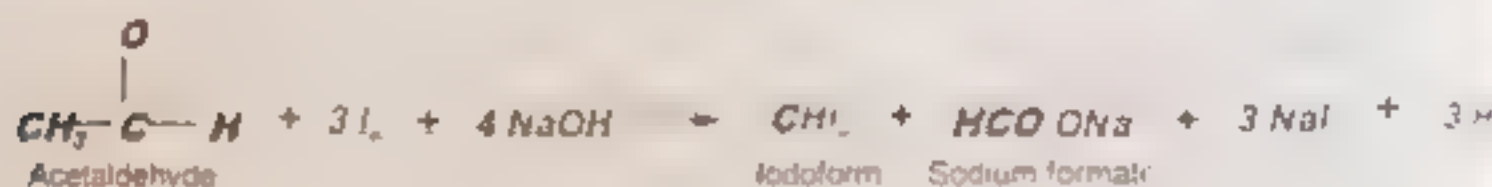
Exercise Q3 (c) Give detail of haloform reaction. Why it is called so

(5) HALOFORM REACTION

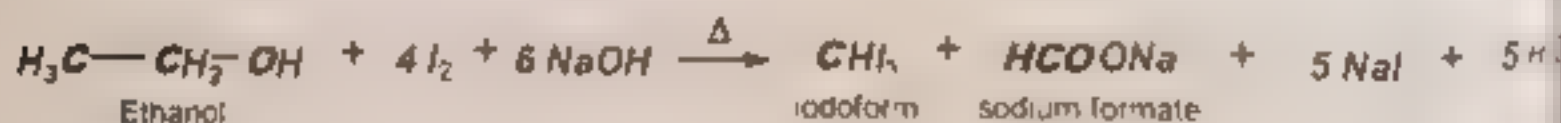
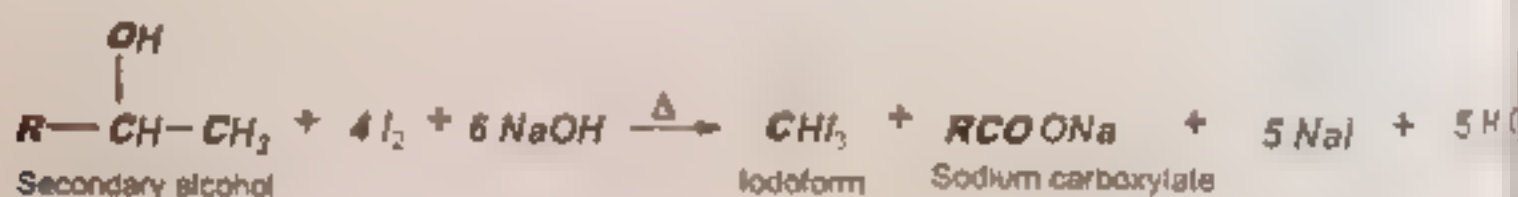
- Only acetaldehyde and



R = Alkyl or aryl or H



- Secondary alcohols containing the methyl group also undergo this reaction. The alcohol that gives this reaction



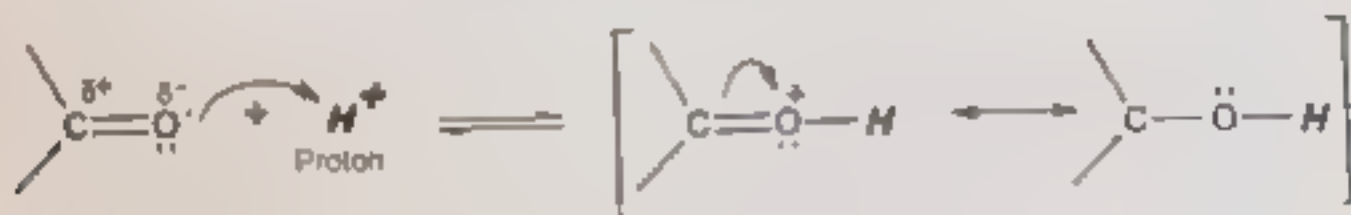
- Haloform reaction is a convenient method for converting a methyl ketone to a carboxylic acid containing carbon atom less than parent compound

iodoform test

- It is haloform reaction in which iodine and aqueous sodium hydroxide form water insoluble yellow solid
- Iodoform test is used for distinguishing methyl ketones from other ketones
- It is also used to distinguish ethanol from methanol and other primary alcohols
- It can be used to distinguish acetaldehyde from other aldehydes

(II) ACID CATALYSED NUCLEOPHILIC ADDITION REACTIONS

- The addition is initiated by the protonation of the carbonyl oxygen.
- It increases the electrophilic character of the carbonyl carbon. The electrophilic carbon becomes even more electrophilic.

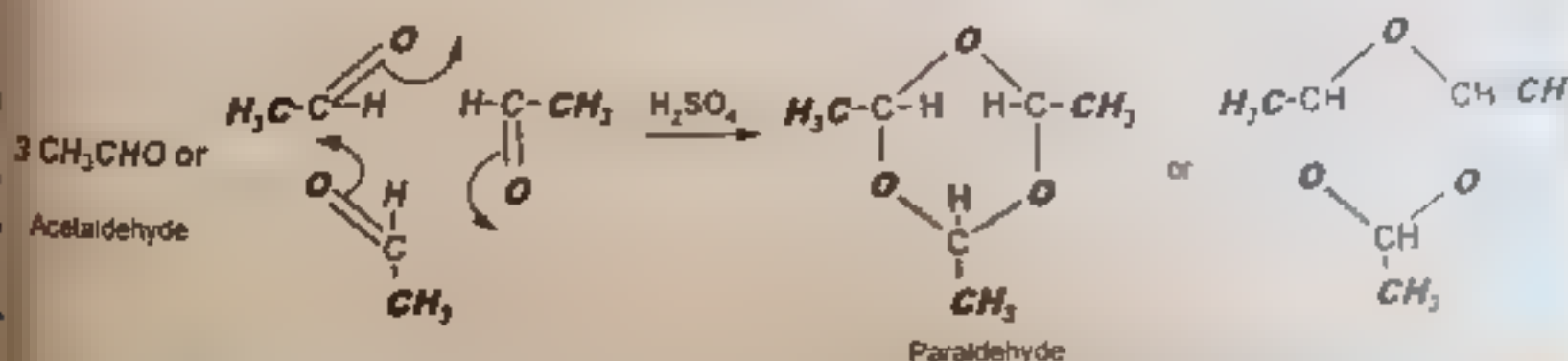
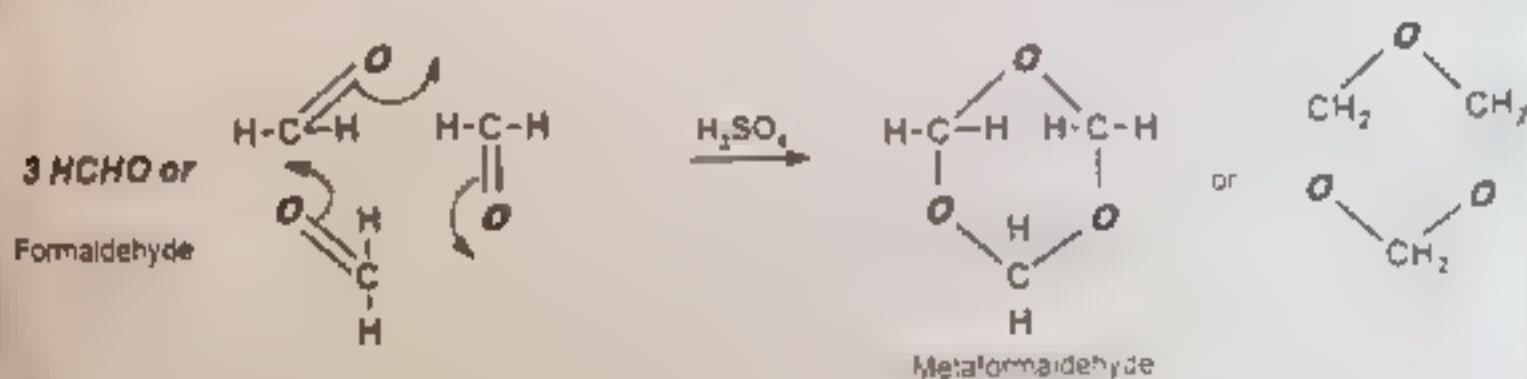


There are three types

- (1) Polymerization
- (2) Addition of ammonia derivatives
- (3) Addition of alcohols

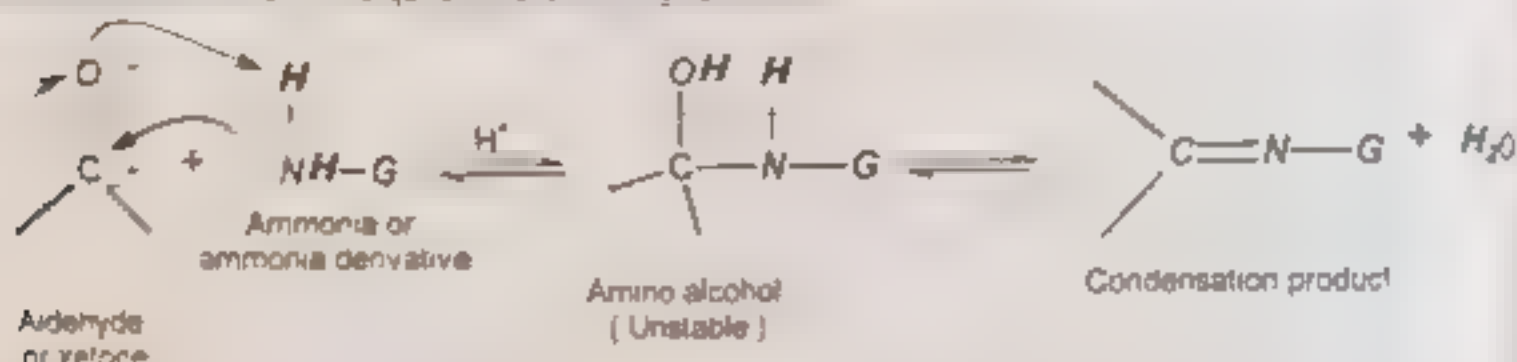
(1) POLYMERIZATION

Both formaldehyde and acetaldehyde polymerize in the presence of dilute acid. Formaldehyde polymerizes to form trioxane and paraformaldehyde.



2) ADDITION OF AMMONIA DERIVATIVES

Aldehydes and ketones react with ammonia or ammonia derivatives to form addition products or condensation products. The reaction is as follows:

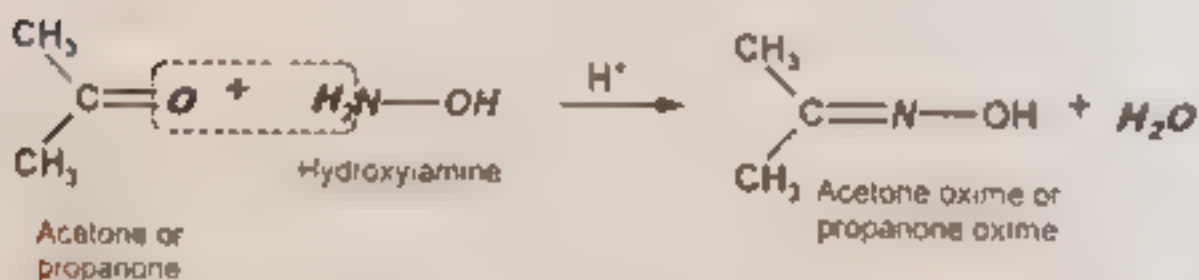
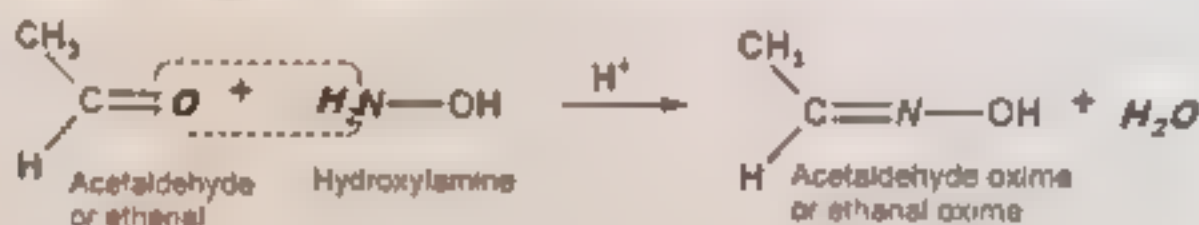


Specific Examples

Some commonly used ammonia derivatives are hydroxylamine NH_2OH , hydrazine NH_2NH_2 , semicarbazide $\text{NH}_2\text{NHCONH}_2$ and 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine $\text{NH}_2\text{NHCONHC}_6\text{H}_3(\text{NO}_2)_2$.

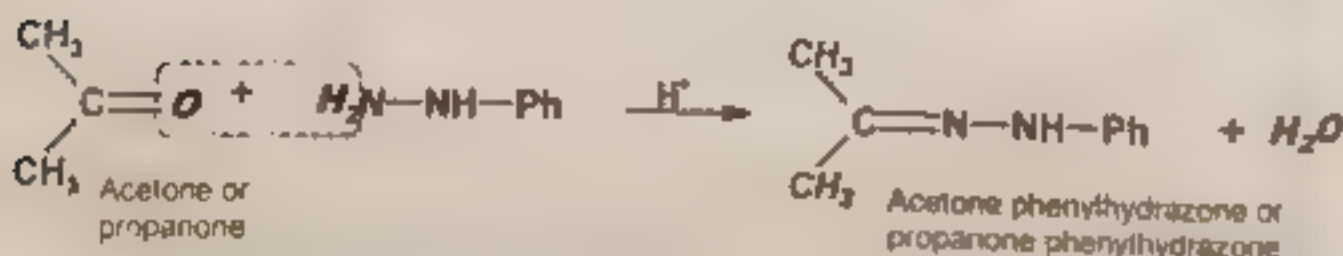
REACTION WITH HYDROXYLAMINE

Aldehydes and ketones react with hydroxylamine to form oximes in the presence of an acid.



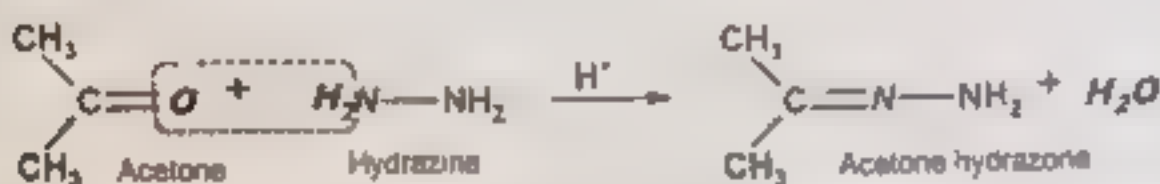
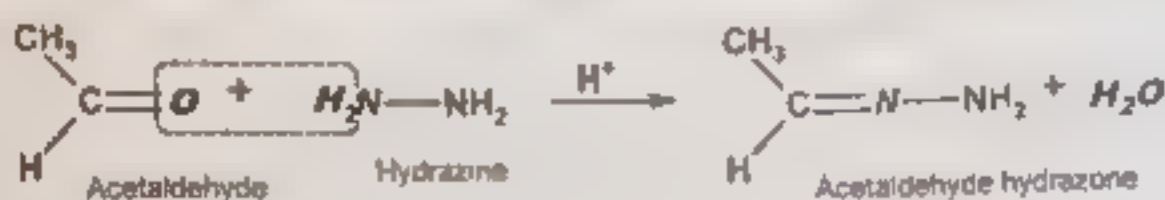
REACTION WITH PHENYLHYDRAZINE

Aldehydes and ketones react with phenylhydrazine to form phenylhydrazones in the presence of an acid.



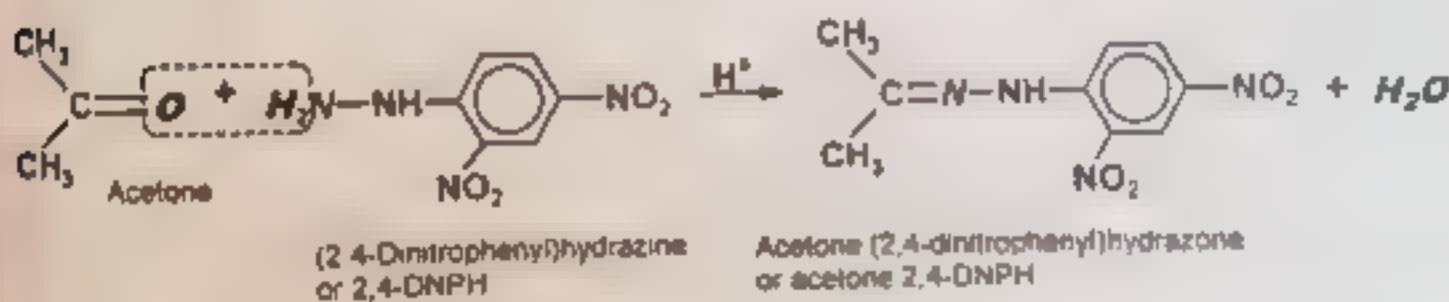
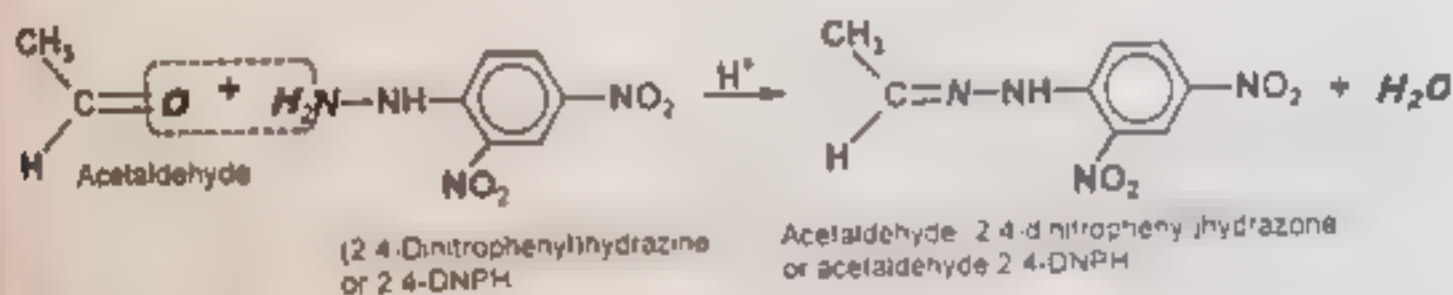
REACTION WITH HYDRAZINE

Aldehydes and ketones react with hydrazine to form hydrazones in the presence of an acid



REACTION WITH 2,4-DINITROPHENYLHYDRAZINE

Aldehydes and ketones react with 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine to form 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazone in the presence of an acid

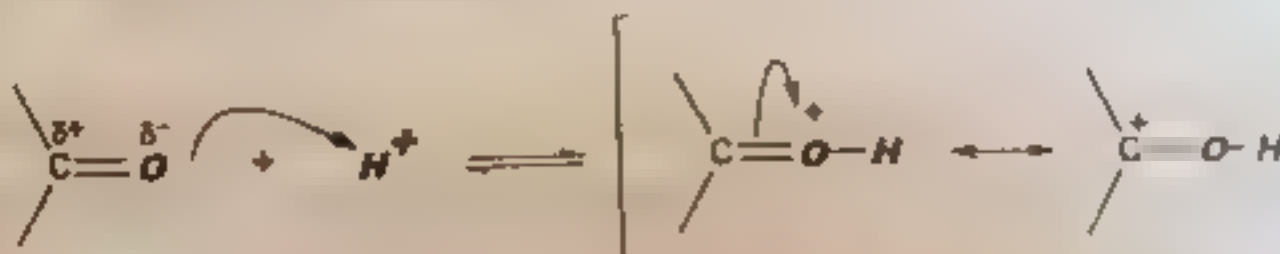


The reaction can be used for the identification of aldehydes and ketones because 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazones are usually yellow or orange crystalline solids

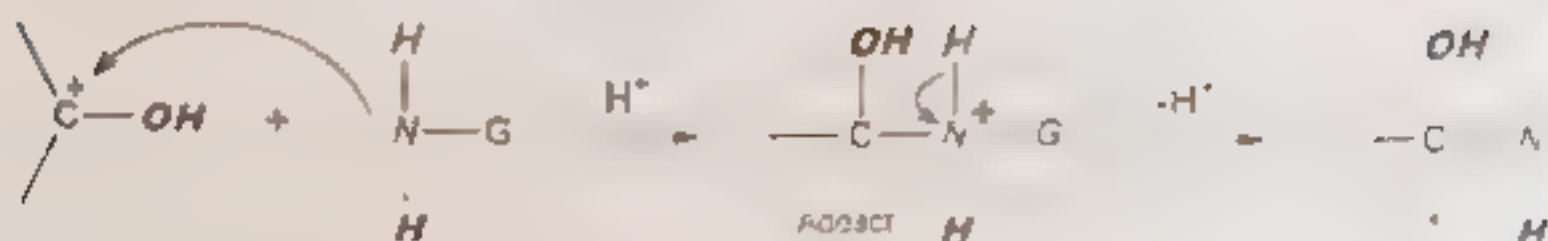
Exercise Q3 (iii) What is the mechanism for addition of ammonia derivatives to carbonyl group?

Mechanism of the Reaction of ammonia derivatives

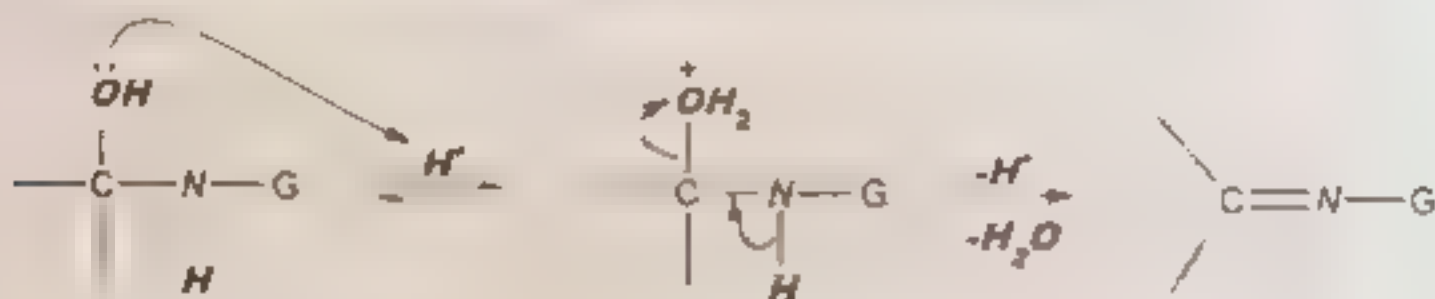
Step 1: Protonation of oxygen of the carbonyl group



Step 2



Step 3

**(3) ADDITION OF ALCOHOLS**

Aldehydes combine with alcohols in the presence of anhydrous zinc chloride acts as a catalyst

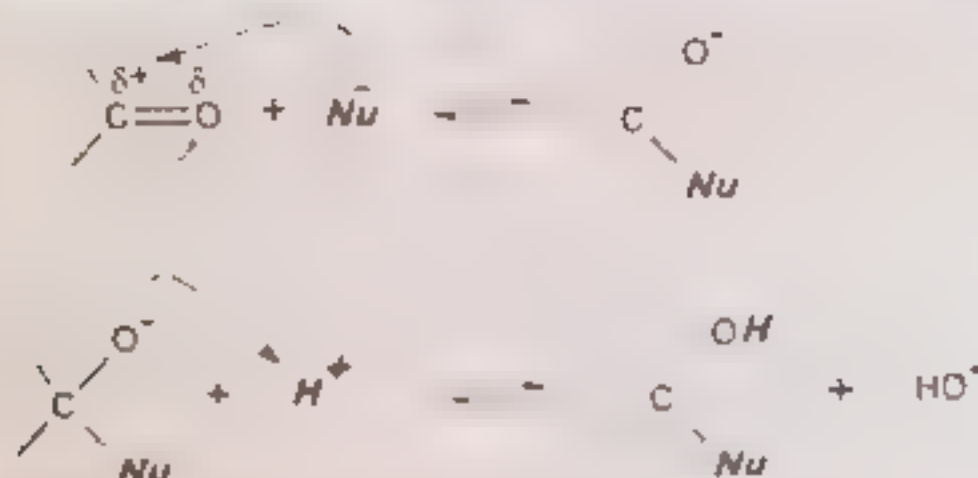


The reaction may be used to protect the aldehyde group against alkaline oxidizing agents. To regenerate aldehyde, the acetal is hydrolysed in the presence of an acid



Note Ketones do not react under these conditions

RELATIVE REACTIVITY OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES



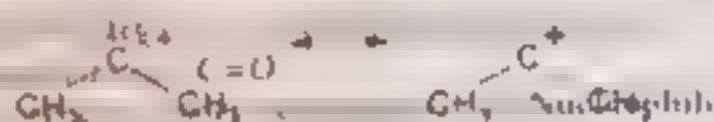
The reaction proceeds via a tetrahedral intermediate which has a negatively charged oxygen. In general the reactivity order is:

aldehydes > ketones

The substituents have the following effects:

- (1) Size of the substituent

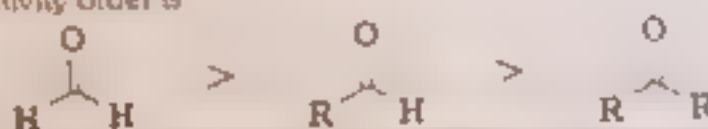
Larger groups withdraw electrons



- (2) The electronic effect

Alkyl groups are electron donating and therefore less electrophilic and therefore less reactive towards nucleophiles.

Thus the reactivity order is



These trends are supported by the trends in the equilibrium constants for the formation of hydrate

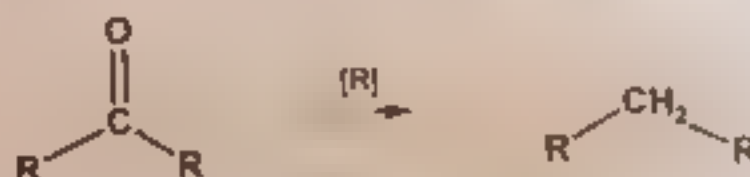
	Carbonyl	K _M	% Hydrate
	methanol	41	99.96
Carbonyl	ethanol	1.0 x 10 ⁻⁴	0.0001
	2,2-dimethylpropanal	4.1 x 10 ⁻⁶	0.000041
	propanone	2.5 x 10 ⁻⁵	0.0025

$$K = [\text{hydrate}] / [\text{C}=\text{O}]$$

Thus, methanol has high value of K, so its equilibrium is appreciably goes to the right. Hence it is more reactive.

REDUCTION OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

REDUCTION TO HYDROCARBONS



Clemmensen Reduction (acidic conditions)

- Zn(Hg) in HCl reduced the C=O into CH_2

Wolff-Kishner Reduction (basic conditions)

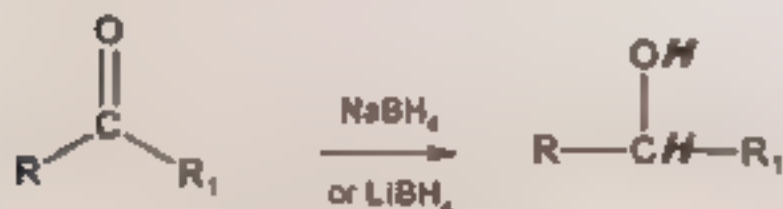
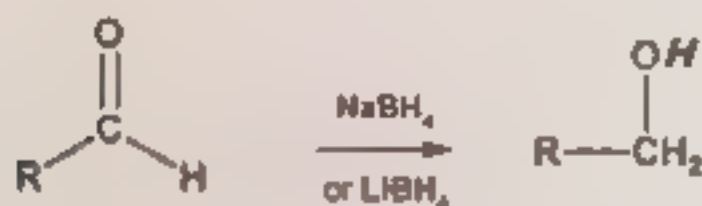
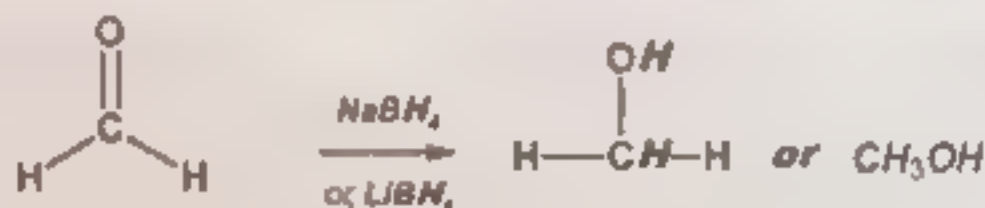
- NH_2NH_2 in KOH or ethylene glycol (a high boiling solvent) reduces the C=O into CH_2

Overview

- These reduction methods do not reduce C=C , $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ or CO_2H
- The choice of method should be made based on the tolerance of other functional groups to the acidic/basic reaction conditions

HYDRIDE REDUCTIONS OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

Hydride reacts with the carbonyl group C=O in aldehydes or ketones to give alcohols



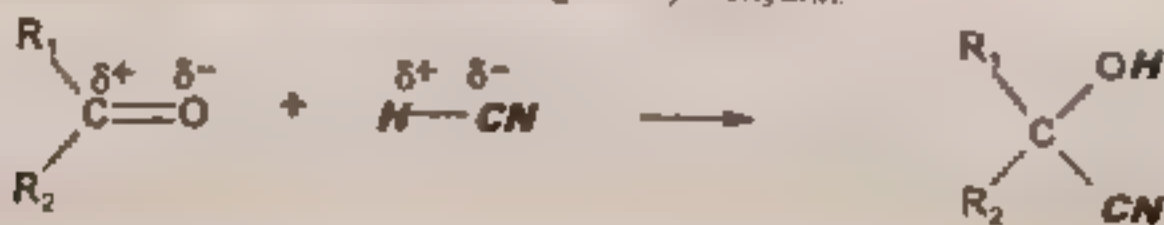
- Aldehydes and ketones are most readily reduced with hydride reagents.
- The reducing agents LiAlH_4 and NaBH_4 act as a source of 4H^- (hydride ion)
- Overall 2 H atoms are added across the C=O to give $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H}$.
- The substituents on the carbonyl tell the nature of the product alcohol
- Reduction of methanal (formaldehyde) gives methanol.
- Reduction of other aldehydes gives **primary** alcohols.
- Reduction of ketones gives **secondary** alcohols.
- The acidic work-up converts an intermediate metal alkoxide salt into the desired alcohol via a simple acid-base reaction

CLASSIFICATION SUMMARY OF REACTIONS OF CARBONYL COMPOUNDS WITH DIFFERENT NUCLEOPHILES

(1) USING CARBON NUCLEOPHILES

CYANOHYDRIN FORMATION

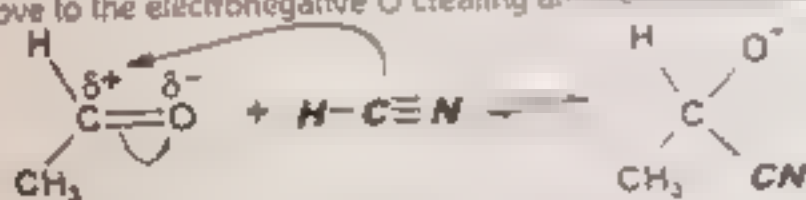
- Cyanide adds to aldehydes and ketones to give a cyanohydrin.



- The reaction is used to synthesize nitriles.
- HCN is a fairly weak acid, but **very toxic**.
- The reaction is used since the nitrile can be hydrolyzed to a carboxylic acid or CH_2NH_2 .

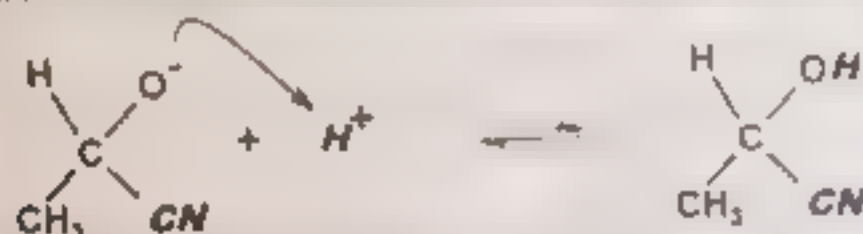
NUCLEOPHILIC ADDITION OF CYANIDE TO AN ALDEHYDE

Step 1:
The nucleophilic C in the cyanide adds to the electrophilic C in the polar carbonyl group. electrons from the C=O move to the electronegative O creating an alkoxide.



Step 2:

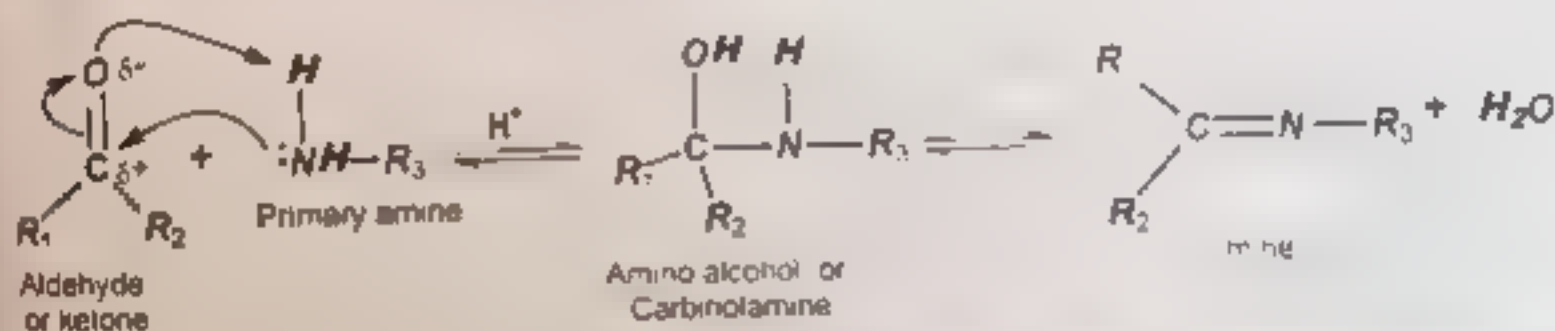
An acid-base reaction. Proton transfer.



(2) USING NITROGEN NUCLEOPHILES

Reactions of Primary Amine derivatives

Primary amines R-NH_2 or ArNH_2 undergo nucleophilic addition to carbonyl groups to form **carbinolamines** which then dehydrate to give substituted **imines**.

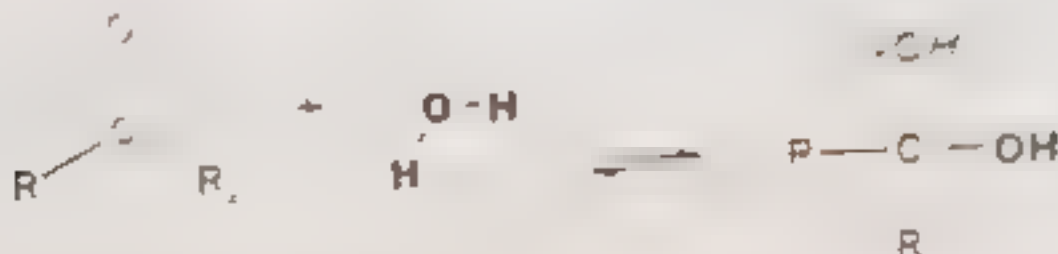


- The reactions are usually carried out in an acidic buffer to activate the C=O and facilitate dehydration but without inhibiting the nucleophile.
- Systems of the general type $\text{H}_2\text{N-G}$ undergo this type of reaction and can be used

(3) USING OXYGEN NUCLEOPHILES

Formation of Hydrates

hydrates



- In general, the reaction is reversible.
- However, the reaction is irreversible for aldehydes.
- Understand the mechanism for the acid-catalyzed formation of hydrates.

MECHANISM FOR THE ACID catalyzed FORMATION OF HYDRATE 5

Step 1

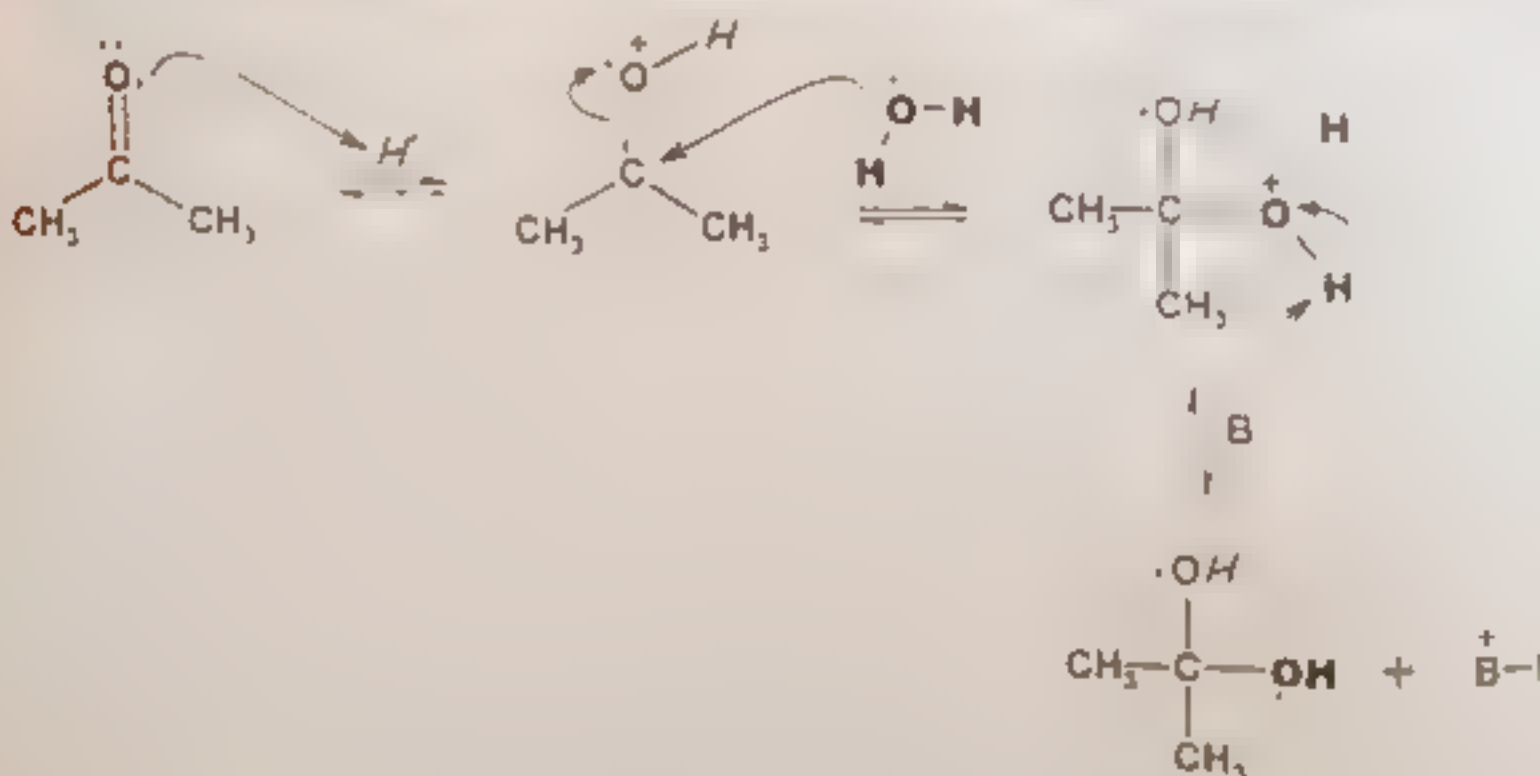
An acid-base reaction. Since there is a lone pair on the oxygen, it can act as a base and protonate the carbonyl oxygen.

Step 2

The nucleophilic oxygen of water attacks the carbonyl carbon, pushing electrons to the positive oxygen.

Step 3

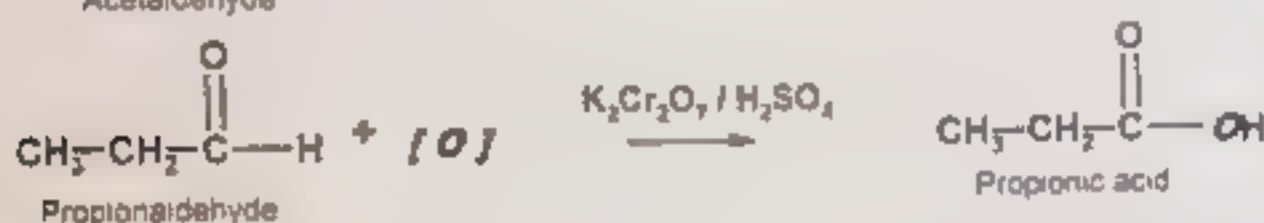
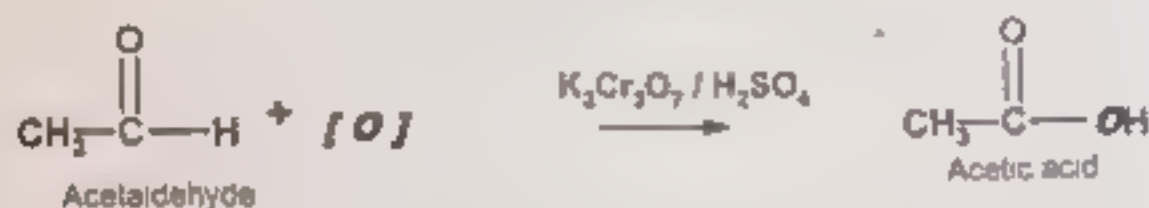
An acid-base reaction. Deprotonation of the oxonium ion by a base.



OXIDATION REACTIONS

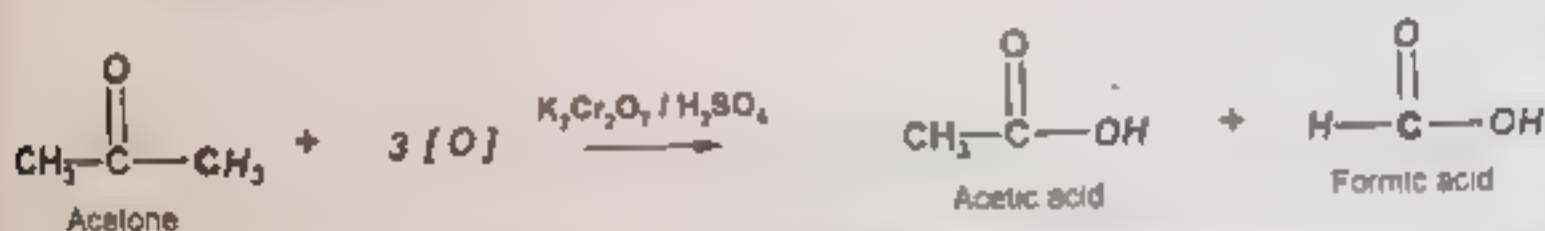
OXIDATION OF ALDEHYDES

- Mild oxidizing agents like Tollens reagent, Fehling's solution and Benedict's solution, etc., oxidize aldehydes to carboxylic acids.
- They are also oxidized by strong oxidizing agents such as $K_2Cr_2O_7$, H_2SO_4 , $KMnO_4$, H_2SO_4 , and dilute nitric acid.
- The hydrogen atom attached to the carbonyl group in aldehydes is oxidized to OH group in these reactions.

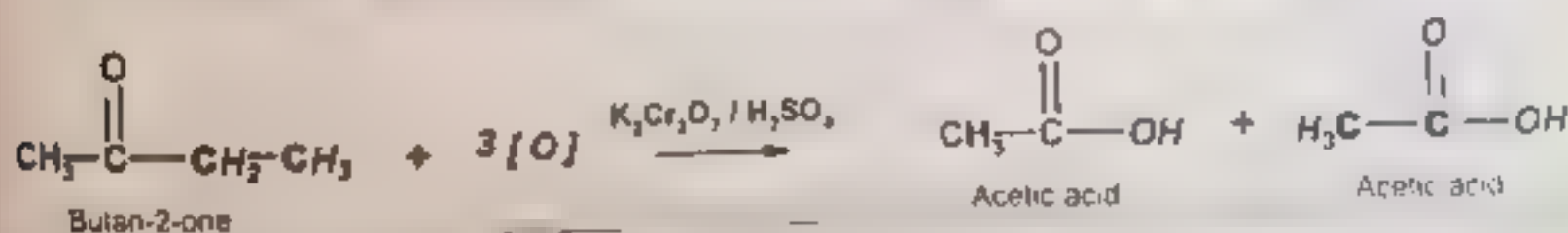


OXIDATION OF KETONES

- Ketones are only oxidized by strong oxidizing agents such as $K_2Cr_2O_7$, H_2SO_4 , $KMnO_4$, H_2SO_4 and conc. HNO_3 .
- The carbon atom joined to the smaller number of hydrogen atoms is oxidized.
- In case of symmetrical ketones only one carbon atom adjacent to the carbonyl group is oxidized and mixture of two carboxylic acids is always obtained.

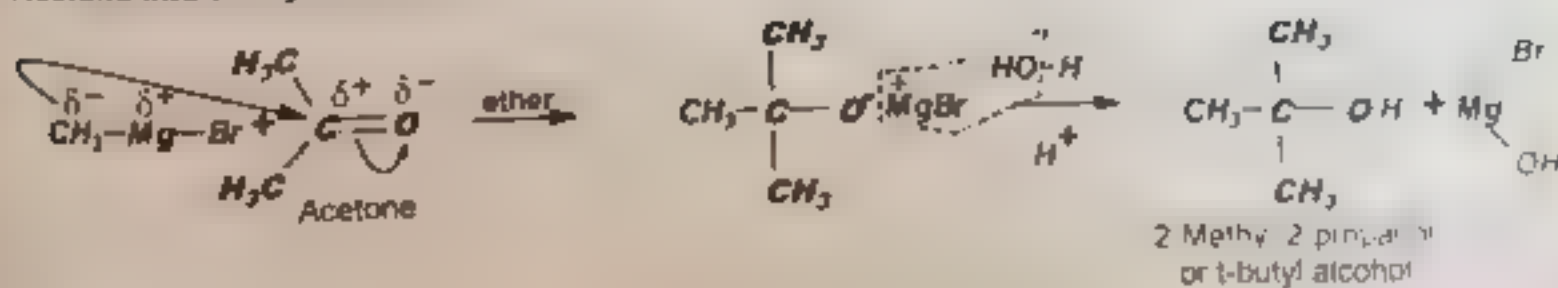


- However, in case of unsymmetrical ketones, the carbon atom joined to the smaller number of hydrogen atoms is preferentially oxidized and the carbonyl group remains with the smaller alkyl group.



SOME IMPORTANT CONVERSIONS

(i) Acetone into t-butyl alcohol



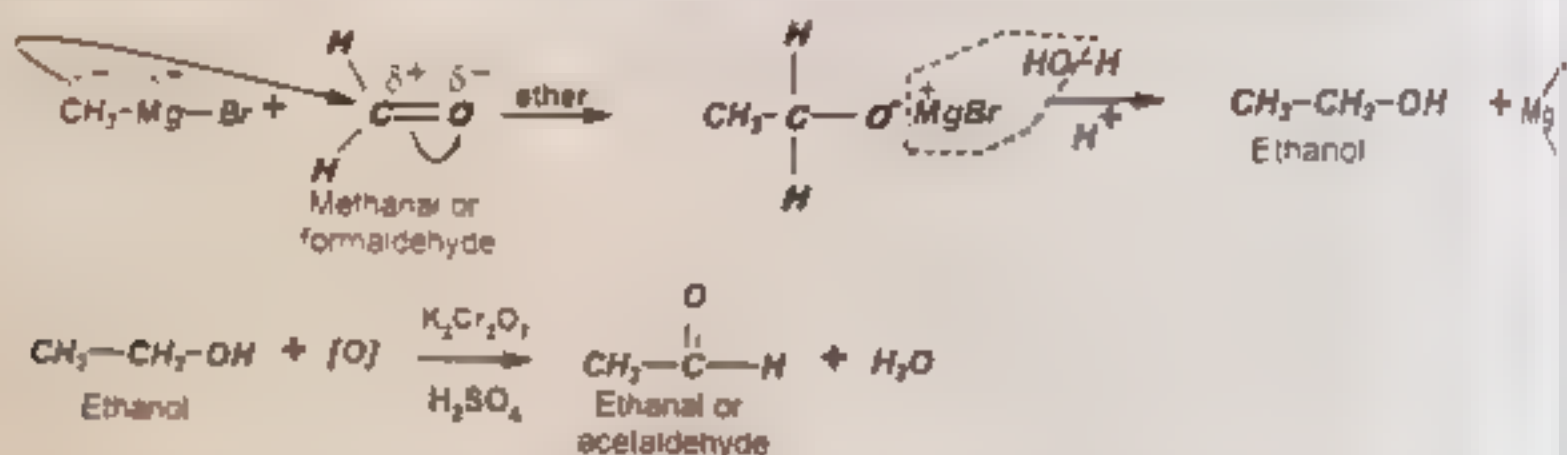
ii) Propional into 1-propanol



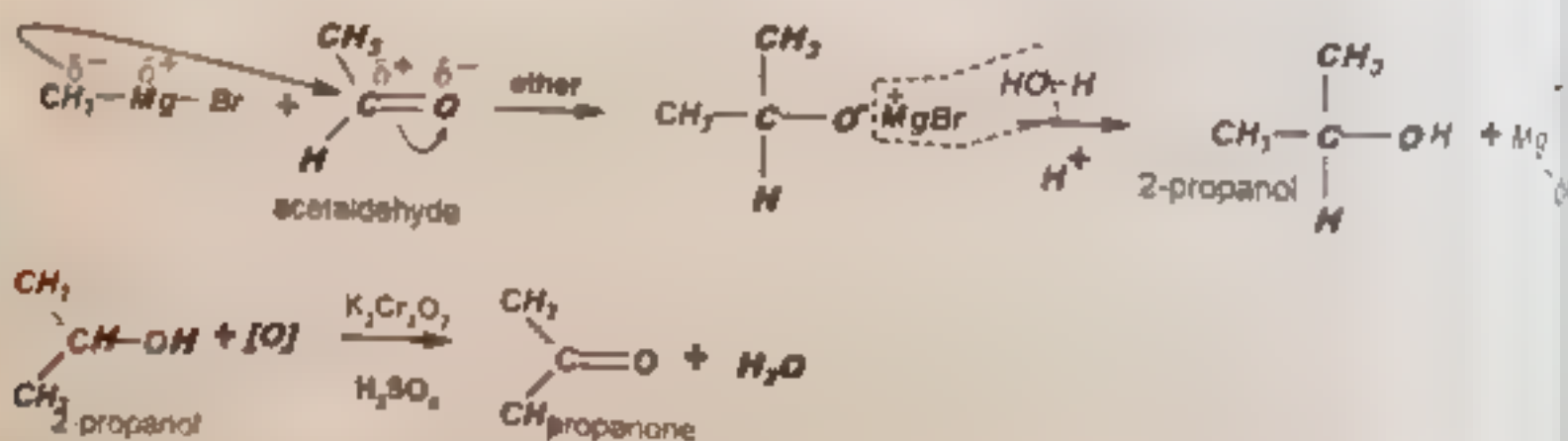
iii) Propanone into 2-propanol



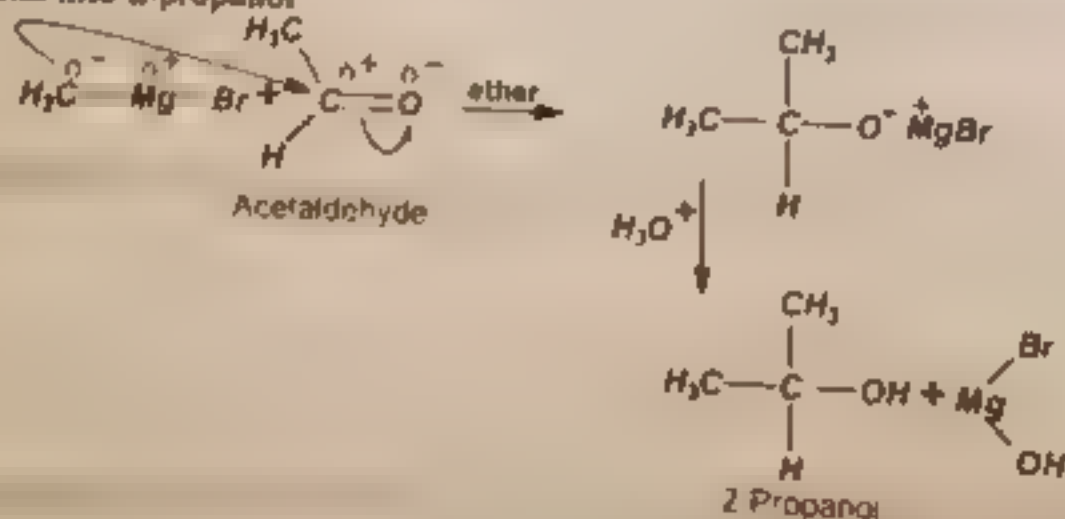
iv) Methanal into ethanal



(v) Ethanal into propanone



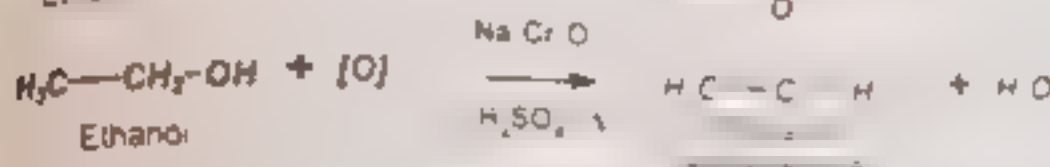
(vi) Ethanal into 2-propanol



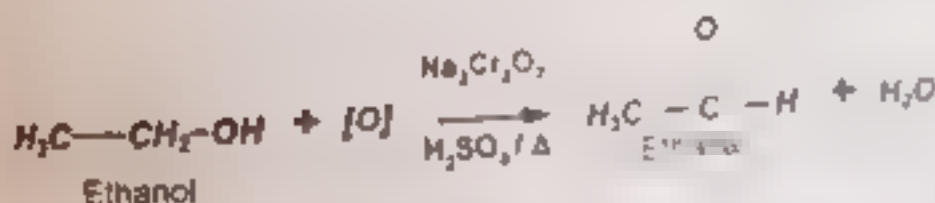
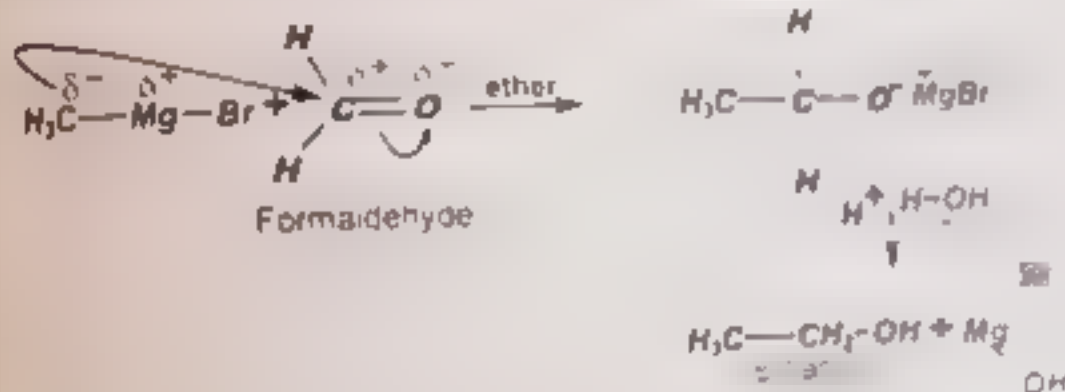
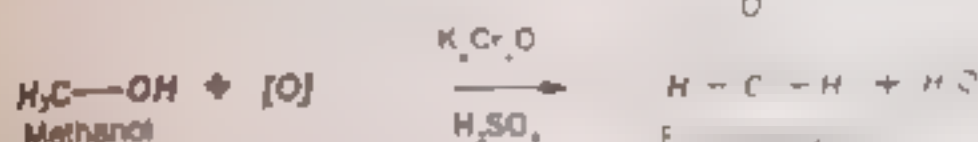
19.12 Aldehydes and Ketones

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Ethene into ethanol



Methanol into ethanol



SOCIETY, TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE

Sugars Glucose and Fructose - Naturally occurring carbonyl compounds







- Sugars are sweet tasting soluble carbohydrates
- Carbohydrates derive their name for the fact that they contain C, H and O in the ratio of 2:1 as in water
- Monosaccharides such as glucose are usually pentose or hexose in their molecules.
- Disaccharides such as sucrose consist of two monosaccharide molecules of water
- Polysaccharides such as starch are made up of many monosaccharide molecules. They are called polymers.
- Monosaccharides all have asymmetric molecules. They are called chiral molecules.
- The most obvious feature of the structure of the Monosaccharides is the number of -OH groups. These give them a large capacity for hydrogen bonding. They are solids, soluble in water. The presence of -OH groups in several positions is thought to be responsible for the sweet taste of sugars.
- The most obvious feature of the structure of the Monosaccharides is the number of -OH groups. These give them a large capacity for hydrogen bonding. They are solids, soluble in water.

CH # 19: Aldehydes and Ketones

336

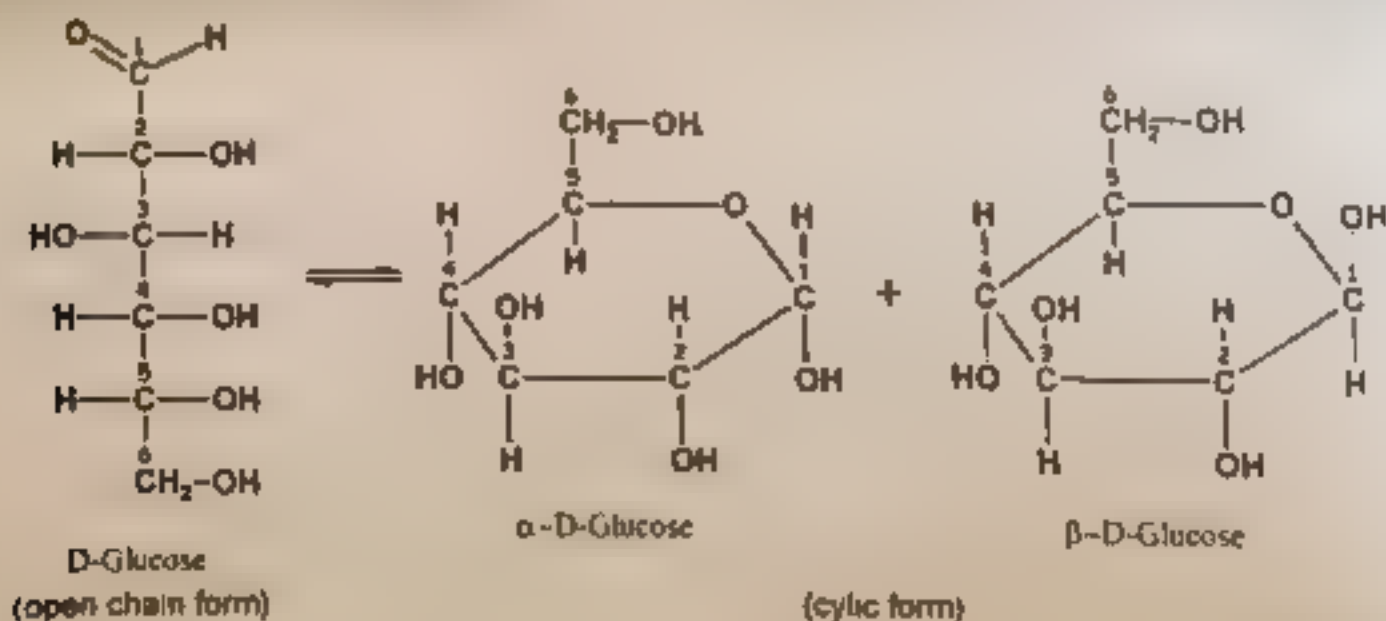
- The presence of $-OH$ groups on several adjacent carbons gives the sweet taste of sugars
- Sugars also show many properties in common with alcohols. For example, glucose gives a crystalline condensation compound with phenylhydrazine. The cyclic structure of glucose contains no carbonyl group.

Some common carbohydrates. In the ring structures, the C atoms in the ring and the H atoms attached to them have been omitted, for clarity.

Name	Type	Structure	Occurrence
glucose	monosaccharide, aldose, hexose		occurs abundantly in plants and animals
fructose	monosaccharide, ketose, hexose		In fruit and honey
ribose	monosaccharide, aldose, pentose		component of the molecules of ribonucleic acid (RNA) and vitamin B12
sucrose	disaccharide		sugar cane, sugar beet (commonly simply called 'sugar')
maltose	disaccharide		malt
lactose	disaccharide		milk
starch	polysaccharide	chains of glucose units	plant storage organs, e.g. potato, wheat grain
cellulose	polysaccharide	chains of glucose units (linked differently to those in starch)	structural material of plants

The carbonyl properties possessed by glucose arise from the fact that in addition to its normal ring form, it can also exist as an open chain form.

Glucose - An example of aldehyde



- The two forms are readily inter-converted and in aqueous solution about 1% of glucose molecules exist in the open chain form.

CH 10 Aldehydes and Ketones

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1. This is the

functional group

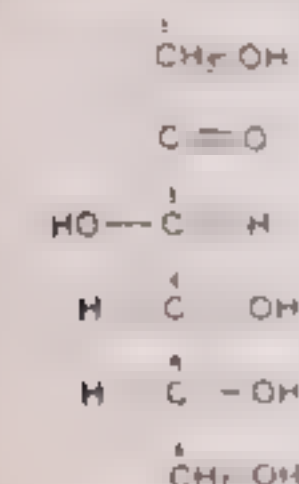
2. This is the

functional group

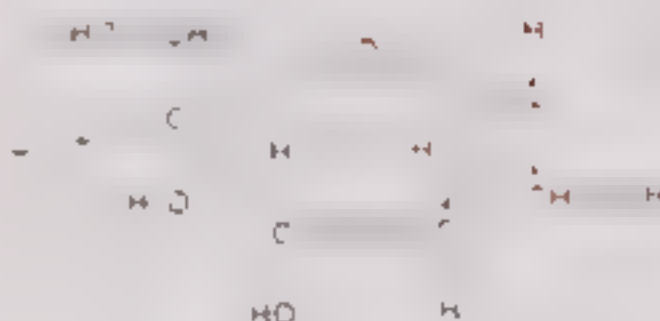
3. This is the

functional group

Fructose - An example of Ketone



open chain form



Why does the open chain form of fructose and other sugars change into the cyclic form?

It is a result of the reaction involved in the cyclic addition reaction.

DO YOU KNOW?

- Acetone is used in the manufacture of plastics.
- Formaldehyde is used as a disinfectant.
- Formaldehyde is used in the manufacture of plastics.

QUICK QUIZ-2

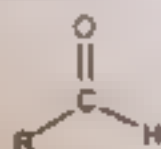
1. What is the functional group of carbonyl compounds? Write their general formula.

(10)

Carbonyl compounds are aldehydes and ketones.

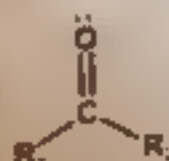
The compound in which carbonyl group is at the end of the chain is called an aldehyde.

Their general formula is



The compounds in which carbonyl group is in the middle of the chain are called ketones. In these compounds C=O group occurs within the chain.

Their general formula is



where R₁ and R₂ are

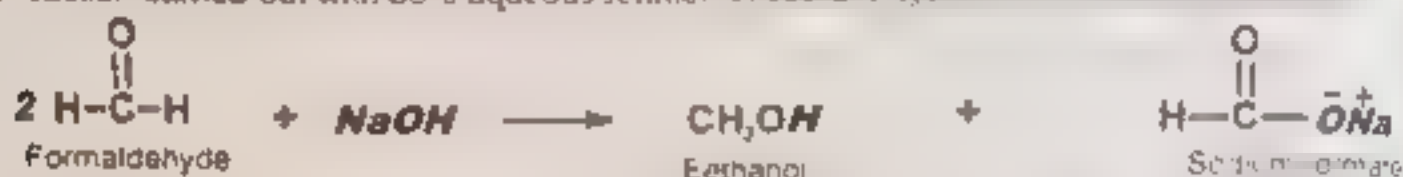
(2) What types of aldehydes used in Cannizzaro's reactions

Aldehydes having no α -hydrogen atoms undergo Cannizzaro's reaction

e.g. Formaldehyde, HCHO Benzaldehyde $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CHO}$ etc

(3) What is Cannizzaro's reaction?

- Aldehydes having no α -hydrogen atoms undergo Cannizzaro's reaction
- It is a disproportionate (self oxidation-reduction) reaction
- Two molecules of the aldehyde are involved. One molecule is reduced into corresponding alcohol, the other is oxidized into the acid (in the salt form)
- The reaction carried out with 50% aqueous solution of sodium hydroxide at room temperature.



(4) Which types of carbonyl compound condense to form an aldol?

Aldehydes having at least one α -hydrogen atoms undergo Aldol Condensation reaction

e.g. Acetaldehyde, CH_3CHO etc.

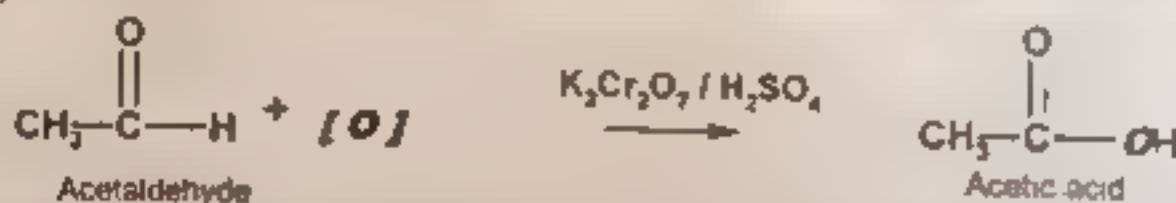
(5) What is haloform reaction?

Acetaldehyde, ethanol, methyl ketones and secondary alcohols with methyl group at α carbon react with halogens (Cl_2 , Br_2 , I_2) in the presence of sodium hydroxide to give haloform (chloroform, bromoform, iodoform) and sodium salt of the acid. This reaction is called haloform reaction



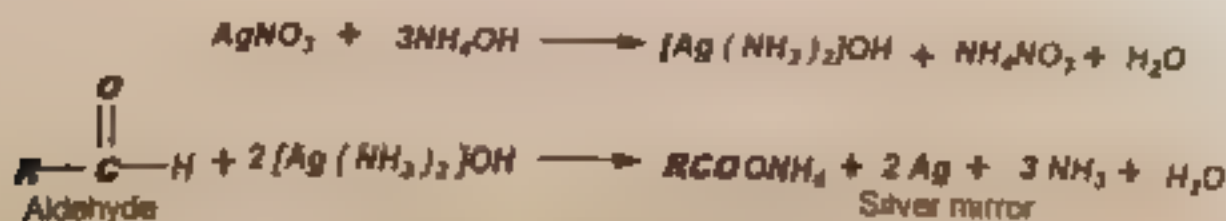
(6) Give the oxidation of reactions of aldehydes

- Mild oxidizing agents like Tollen's reagent, Fehling's solution and Benedict's solution oxidize aldehydes to carboxylic acids
- They are also oxidized by strong oxidizing agents such as $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$, H_2SO_4 , KMnO_4 , $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$, HNO_3 nitric acid.
- The hydrogen atom attached to the carbonyl group in aldehydes is oxidized to carboxylic acid reactions



(7) Give the reactions of aldehyde with tollen's reagent

- Aldehydes form silver mirror with Tollen's reagent (ammonical silver nitrate solution)
- Add Tollen's reagent to an aldehyde solution in a test tube and warm
- A silver mirror is formed on the inside of the test tube



What types of ppt are formed when aldehyde reacts with Fehling's solution

- A brick-red precipitate of cuprous oxide is formed.
- To an aldehyde solution, add Fehling's solution and boil.
- A brick-red precipitate of cuprous oxide is formed.
- Ketones do not give this test.



KEY POINTS

- Primary alcohols can be oxidized to aldehydes and carboxylic acids.
- Secondary alcohols can be oxidized to ketones.
- Tertiary alcohols cannot be oxidized (no carbinol C-H).
- The protonation of a carbonyl gives a structure that can be redrawn in another resonance form that reveals the electrophilic character of the C since it is a carbocation.
- Organolithium or Grignard reagents react with the carbonyl group ($\text{C}=\text{O}$) in aldehydes or ketones to give alcohols.
- The carbonyl group ($\text{C}=\text{O}$) is present in aldehydes and ketones. In aldehydes it is in a terminal position in the carbon chain. In ketones it is in a non-terminal position.
- Aldehydes and ketones are named using the suffixes -al and -one respectively.
- Aldehydes are prepared by oxidation of primary alcohols, ketones by oxidation of secondary alcohols.
- The carbonyl group reacts with alcohols to form acetals. This is a reversible reaction and is used to protect a molecule of water, resulting in a condensation reaction.
- Aldehydes are generally more reactive than ketones.
- The tendency of aldehydes to undergo electrophilic addition reactions is greater than that of ketones.
- Aldehydes can be oxidized to carboxylic acids by a variety of reagents. Ketones are not easily oxidized.
- The carbonyl group activates the benzylic position in aromatic aldehydes and ketones. In alkanes substituted then those in alkanes.

EXERCISE

Q1: Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

- The carbon atom of a carbonyl group is one of these
(a) sp hybridized (b) sp^2 hybridized
- Ketones are prepared by the oxidation of (c) secondary alcohols
(a) Primary alcohols (b) Secondary alcohols
- Acetone reacts with HCN to form a cyanohydrin. It is an example of (c) Electrophilic addition
(a) Electrophilic addition (b) Nucleophilic addition
(c) Nucleophilic addition (d) Nucleophilic substitution
- Cannizzaro's reaction is not given by (c) Benzaldehyde
(a) Formaldehyde (b) Acetaldehyde
(c) Benzaldehyde (d) Trimethylacetaldehyde
- Which of the following reagents will react with both aldehydes and ketones? (c) Grignard reagent
(a) Grignard reagent (b) Tollen's reagent
(c) Grignard reagent (d) Tollen's reagent
- Aldehydes are the oxidation product of (c) tertiary alcohols
(a) primary alcohols (b) secondary alcohols
(c) tertiary alcohols (d) carboxylic acids
- Which of the following compounds will not give iodoform test on treatment with I_2/NaOH (c) Acetaldehyde
(a) Acetaldehyde (b) Acetone
(c) Acetaldehyde (d) Acetone
- Aldehydes and ketones are carbonyl compounds. Which of them react both with NaBH_4 and with Tollen's reagent. (b) Aldehydes only
(a) Both aldehydes and ketones (b) Aldehydes only

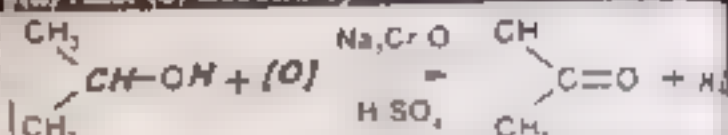
- (ix) Which one of the following can undergo Aldol condensation reaction?
 (a) Formaldehyde (b) Acetaldehyde (c) Ketones only (d) Neither aldehydes nor ketones
- (x) Aldol condensation is not successful with compounds
 (a) Having no α hydrogen (b) Having α hydrogen
- (xi) Phenylhydrazine on treatment with carbonyl compounds with
 (a) Hydroxyl amines (b) Phenylhydrazones
- (xii) Formaldehyde react with NH_3 to give?
 (a) Tetra ethylene hexamine (b) tetra ethylene tetra amine
 (c) Hexa methylene tetra amine
- (xiii) General formula of aldehyde and ketone is?
 (a) $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n}\text{O}$ (b) $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}\text{O}$ (c) $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n}\text{O}$ (d) $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}\text{O}$
- (xiv) Which of the following can be prepared in the laboratory by dry distillation of $(\text{HCOO})_2\text{Ca}$?
 (a) $\text{H}_2\text{C}=\text{CH}_2$ (b) CH_3OH (c) CH_3COOH (d) CH_3CHO
- (xv) The colour of Iodoform is
 (a) White (b) Black (c) Yellow (d) Blue

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

(i) Ans: (b) sp^2 hybridized

The carbonyl carbon is sp^2 hybridized. It has three hybridized orbitals for sigma bond formation and one unhybridized $2p_z$ orbital for pi bond formation.

(ii) Ans: (b) Secondary alcohol



(iii) Ans: (c) Nucleophilic addition

Since CN^- from HCN acts as a nucleophile and attacks the carbonyl carbon. So HCN addition is a nucleophilic addition.

(iv) Ans: (b) Acetaldehyde

(v) Ans: (a) Grignard reagent

Grignard's reagent reacts with both aldehydes and ketones to produce alcohols.

(vi) Ans: (a) p-alcohols

(vii) Ans: (d) 3-pentanone

Iodoform test is given by methyl ketones i.e. the ketones which have a methyl group adjacent to the carbonyl group. Since 3-pentanone has no methyl group adjacent to the carbonyl group, so it will not give iodoform test.

(viii) Ans: (b) Aldehydes only

Aldehydes are oxidized to carboxylic acids. Ketones are not oxidized by KMnO_4 .

(ix) Ans: (b) Acetaldehyde

Aldol condensation reaction is given by aldehydes which have α -hydrogen. Since acetaldehyde (CH_3CHO) has α -hydrogens, so it will give Aldol condensation reaction.

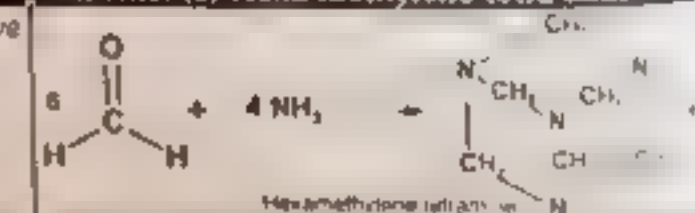
(x) Ans: (a) Having no α -hydrogen

Aldol condensation reaction is given by aldehydes which have α -hydrogen.

(xi) Ans: (b) Phenylhydrazine

Phenyl hydrazine reacts with a carbonyl compound to give phenyl hydrazone.

(xii) Ans: (c) Hexa methylene tetra amine



(xiii) Ans: (a) $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n}\text{O}$

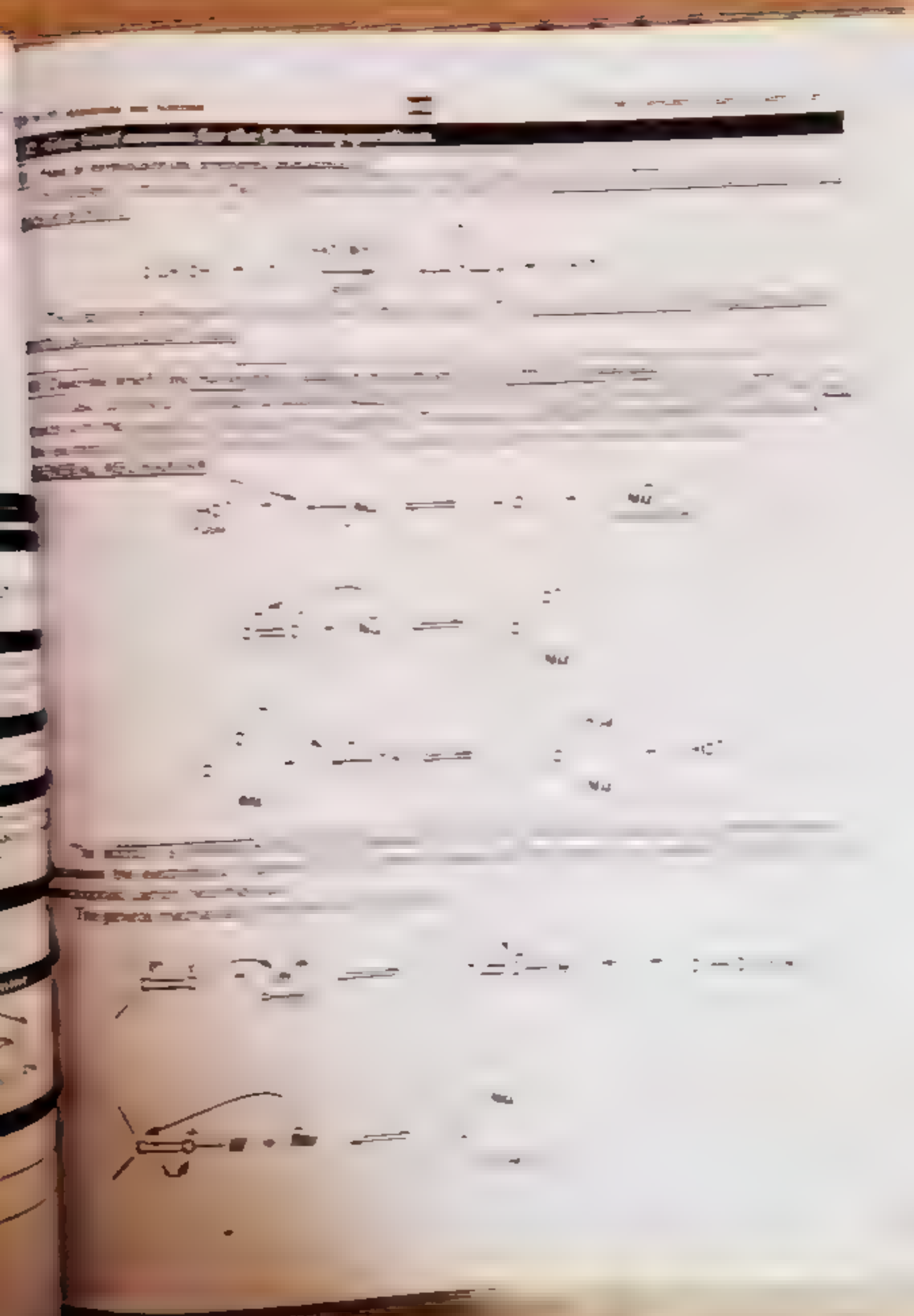
Since, two hydrogen atoms are removed and one oxygen atom is added.

(xiv) Ans: (b) HCHO



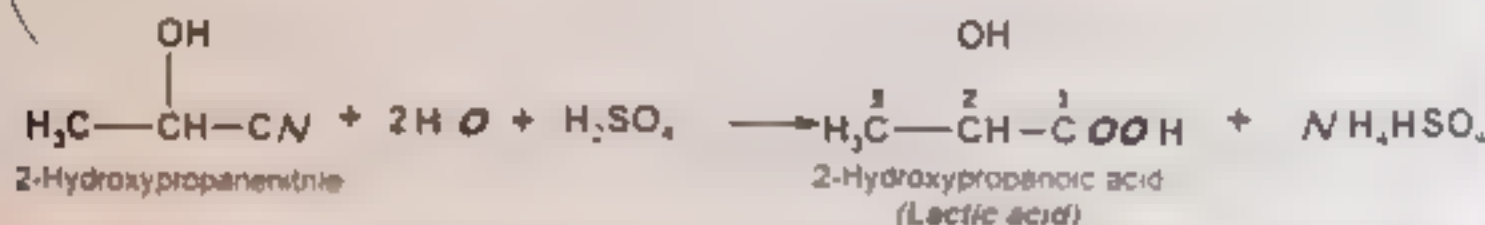
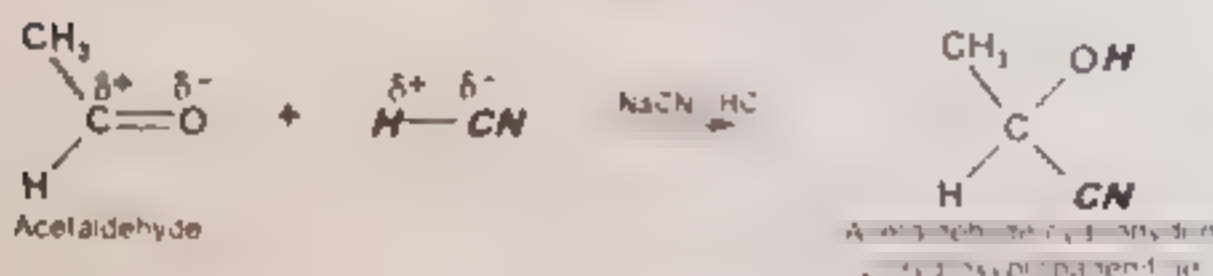
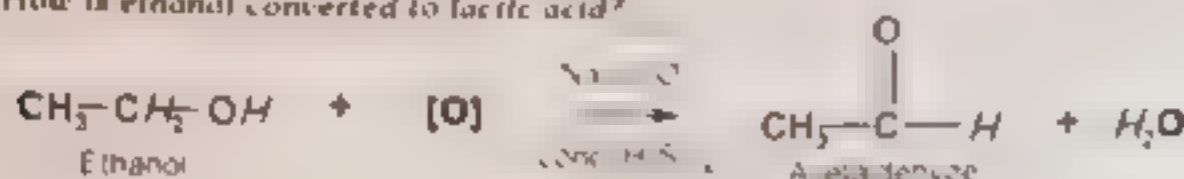
(xv) Ans: (c) Yellow

The colour of Iodoform is yellow.



(iii) What is the mechanism of HCN addition to carbonyl compounds?

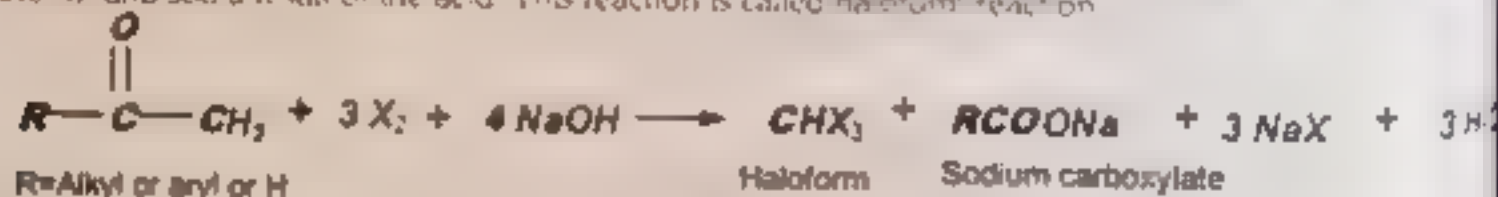
(iv) How is ethanal converted to lactic acid?



(v) What is the addition product of Grignard reagent to formaldehyde, acetaldehyde and ketone?

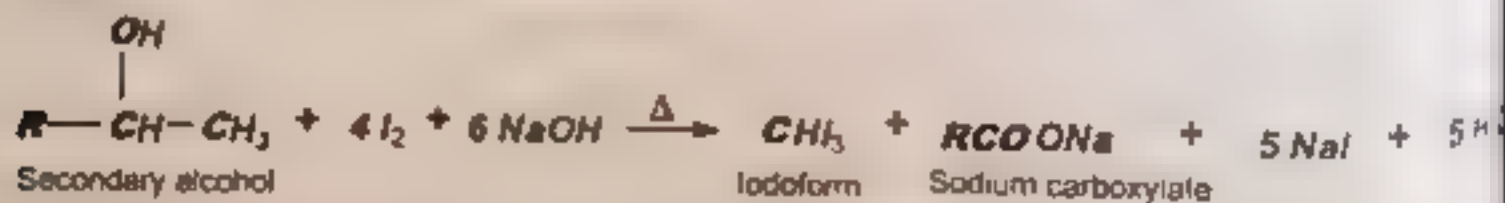
(vi) What is Haloform reaction?

Acetaldehyde, ethanol, methyl ketones and secondary alcohols with methyl group at α carbon halogens (Cl_2 , Br_2 , I_2) in the presence of sodium hydroxide to give haloform (chloroform, bromoform, iodoform) and sodium salt of the acid. This reaction is called haloform reaction.



(vii) Which type of alcohols undergo iodoform reaction?

Secondary alcohols containing the methyl group also undergo this reaction.



Ethanol is the only primary alcohol that gives this reaction.



(viii) How are methanol and ethanol polymerized?

(b) Why formaldehyde do not give aldol condensation reaction?

For aldol condensation reaction the carbonyl compound must have a hydrogen atom attached to a carbon atom next to carbonyl group. In formaldehyde there is no such hydrogen so it cannot give aldol condensation reaction.

(c) Give the mechanism of addition of sodium bisulphate to ketones

Page 323

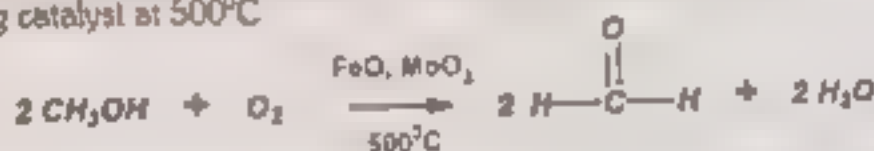
13: Give detailed answers for the following questions.

(i) What is the reactivity of the carbonyl group?

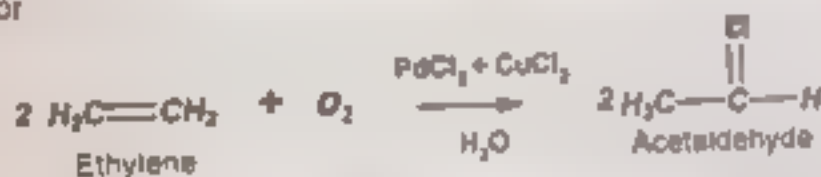
Page 319

(ii) How will you prepare formaldehyde and acetaldehyde on industrial scale?

In industry formaldehyde is prepared by passing a mixture of methanol vapours and air over chromium oxide molybdenum oxide or Ag catalyst at 500°C

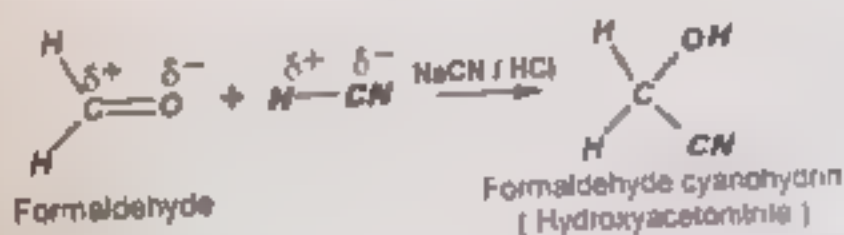


In industry acetaldehyde is prepared by oxidation of ethylene in air using palladium chloride catalyst with chromic chloride promoter



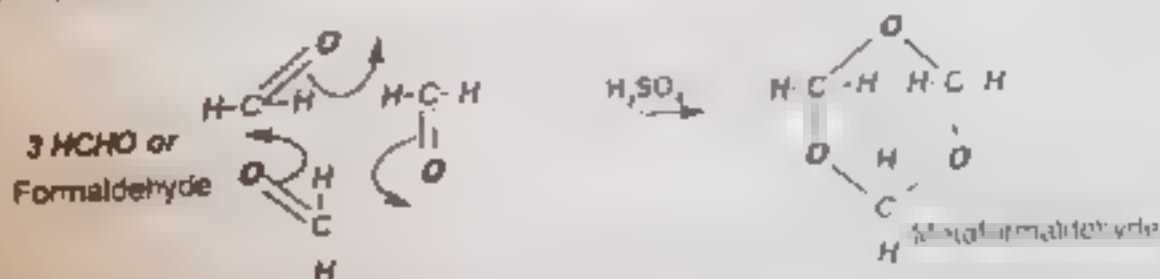
(iii) How formaldehyde reacts with following?

(a) HCN

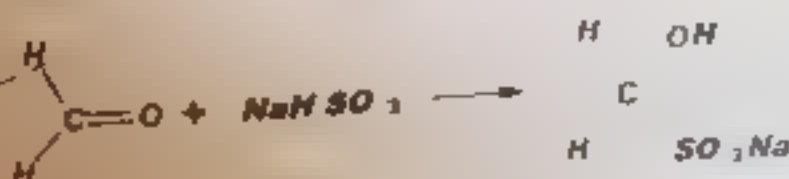


(b) H₂SO₄

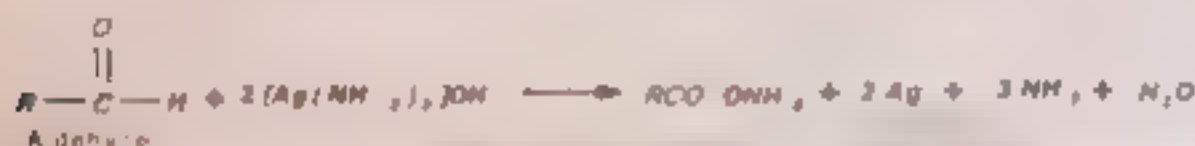
Formaldehyde polymerizes in the presence of dil. H₂SO₄ to give trioxymethylene



(c) NaHSO₃



- (i) Define and explain aldol condensation along with mechanism
Page 324
- (ii) Give detail of haloform reaction. Why it is called so?
Page 327
- (iii) Give the following reductions of aldehydes and ketones along with mechanism
(a) NaBH_4 (b) Catalytic reduction
Page 333
- (iv) What is the mechanism for addition of ammonia derivatives to carbonyl group?
Page 330
- (v) Which type of aldehydes give Cannizzaro's reaction? Explain with mechanism
Page 326
- (vi) How do you distinguish a ketone and an aldehyde by chemical method?
Aldehydes gives silver mirror with Tollen's reagent while ketone does not.

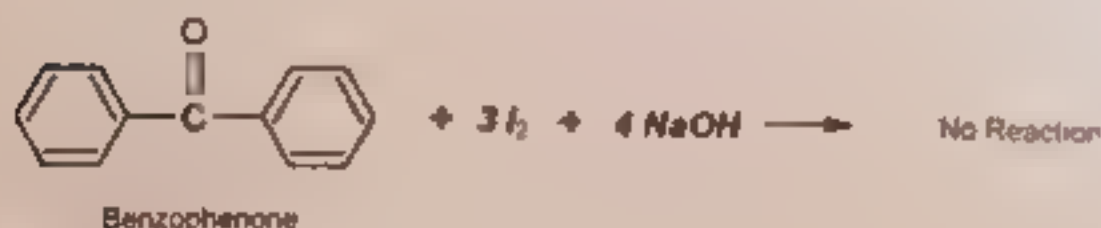


Aldehydes gives red ppt with Fehling's solution while ketones do not.



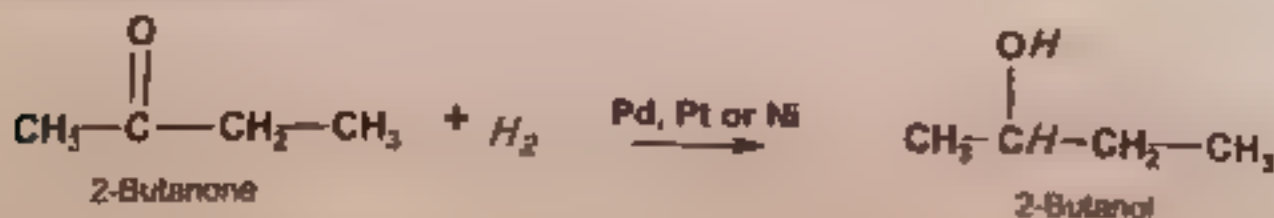
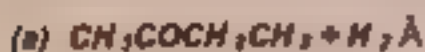
- (vii) How will you differentiate between acetophenone and benzophenone?

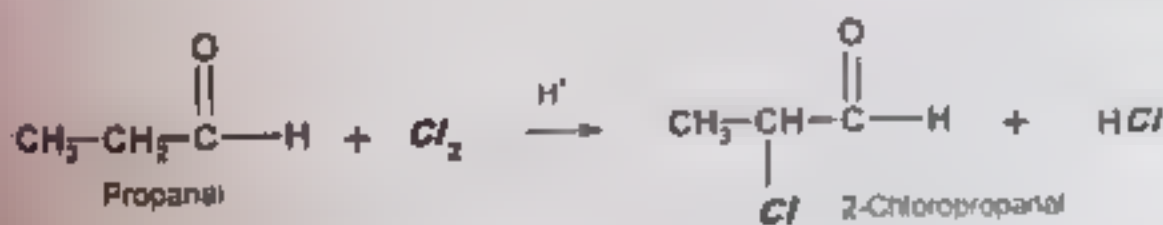
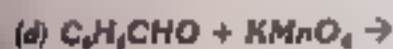
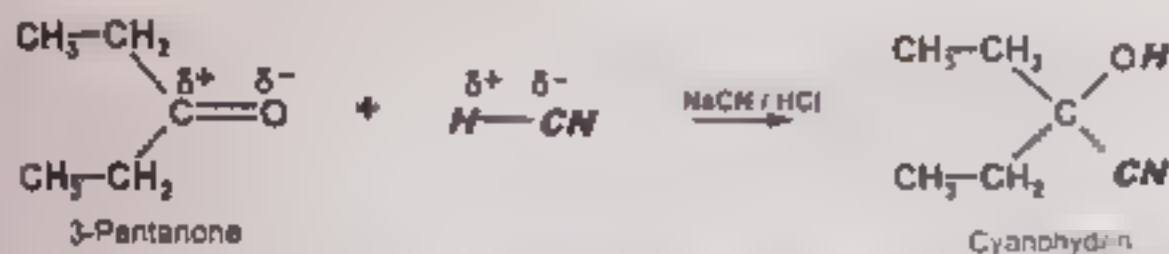
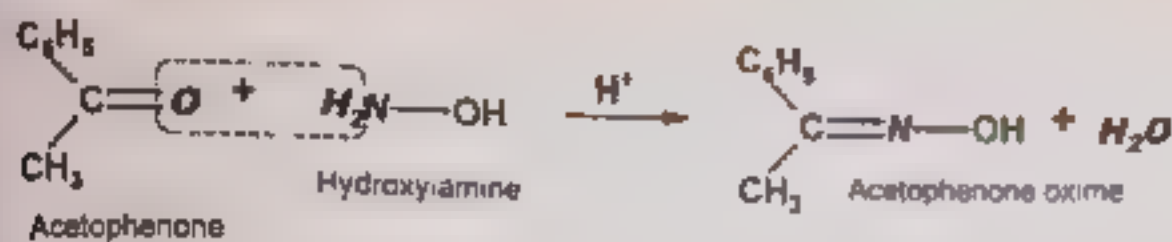
Acetophenone is a methyl ketone, so it will give iodoform test while benzophenone will not give.



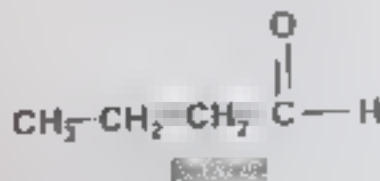
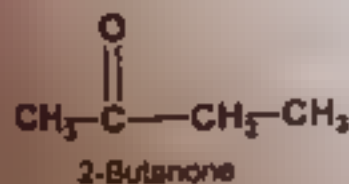
test

- (viii) Predict the formulas of the products of the following reaction



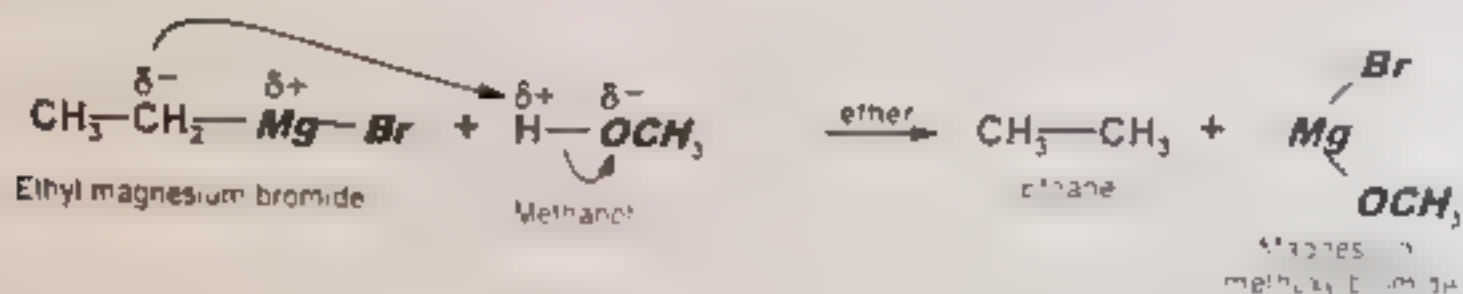


(xii) Write structural formulas for all compounds of molecular formula C_4H_8O containing a carbonyl group.

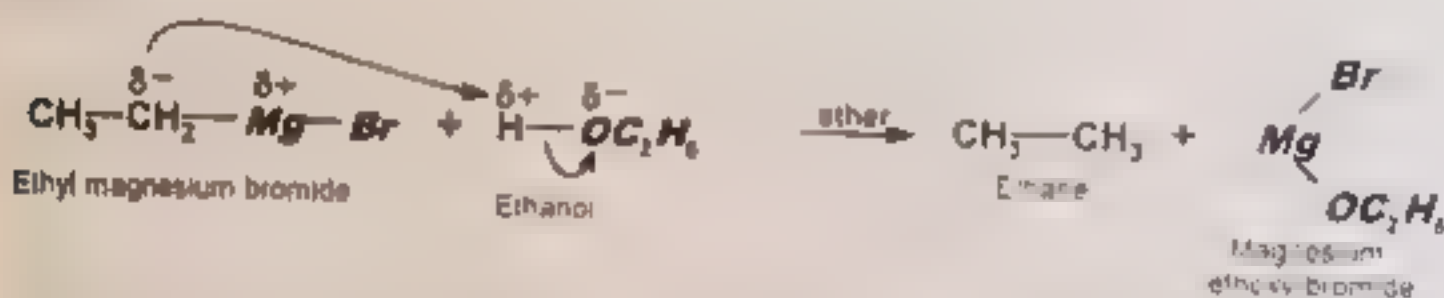


(xiii) Predicts the formulas of the compounds formed when the following are treated with the Grignard reagent methyl magnesium bromide followed by water

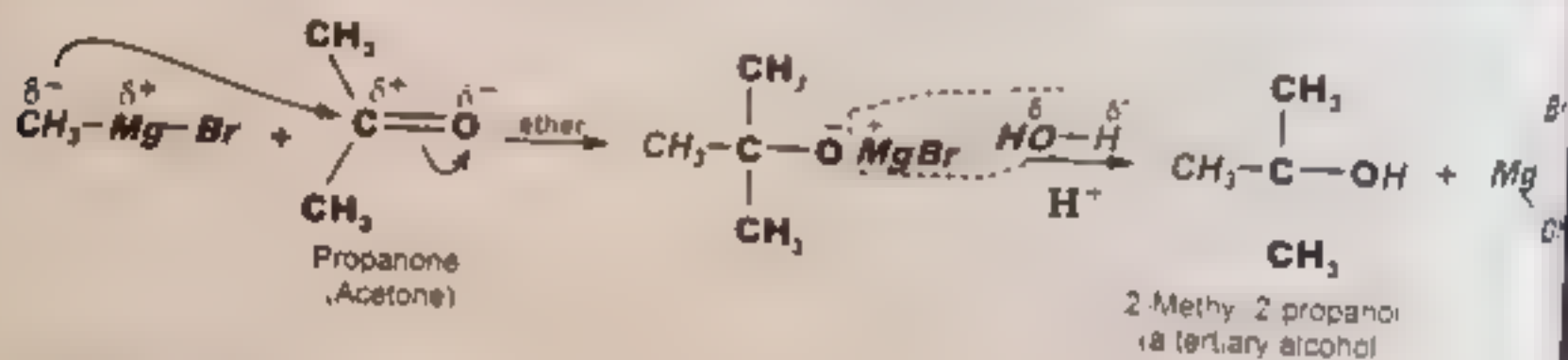
Methanol



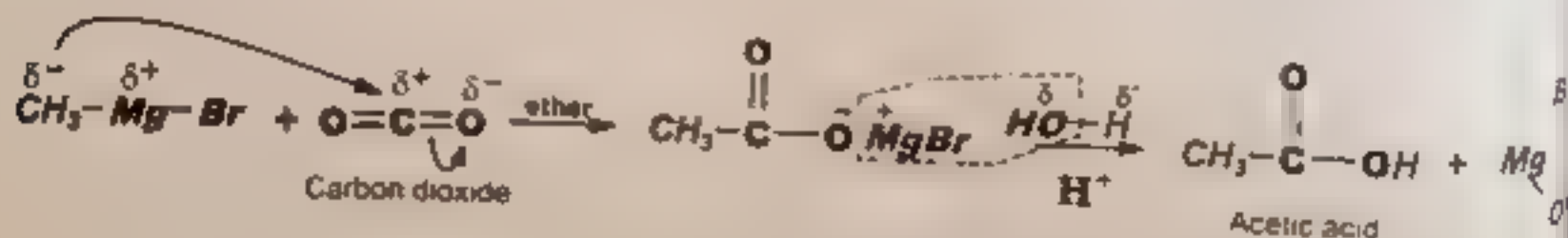
Ethanol



Propanone



Carbon dioxide



TEST YOUR SKILLS

Marks: 85

OBJECTIVE

Time: 20 Minutes

Marks: 17

Note: Over writing, cutting, erasing, using lead pencil will result in loss of marks

Q1 Circle the correct option i.e. A, B, C, D. Each part carries one mark

- (i) The carbon in carbonyl group is
 - A sp^3
 - B sp^2
 - C sp
 - D sp^3d
- (ii) The name of formaldehyde in IUPAC system is
 - A Ethanol
 - B Methanol
 - C Methanal
 - D Ethanal
- (iii) Formalin is
 - A 40% solution of CH_3CHO in water
 - B 40% solution of $HCHO$
 - C 40% solution of CH_3COOH
 - D 40% solution of $HCOOH$
- (iv) Which one of the following compounds is more reactive than ketones?
 - A Formaldehyde
 - B Acetaldehyde
 - C Both A and B
 - D None
- (v) Aldehydes are more reactive than ketones because
 - A steric hindrance
 - B Inductive effect
 - C Both A and B
 - D None
- (vi) A Cannizzaro's reaction takes place
 - A With some molecule of aldehyde
 - B With some molecule of ketone
 - C With same and different aldehydes
 - D With both A and B
- (vii) Catalysts used for the preparation of formaldehyde are
 - A Phosphoric acid
 - B Ferric chloride
 - C Both A and B
 - D All of above
- (viii) Aldol condensation is not successful with compounds
 - A Having no α hydrogen
 - B Having α hydrogen
 - C Both A and B
 - D None
- (ix) Polymer of formaldehyde is
 - A Paraformaldehyde
 - B Paraldehyde
 - C Both A and B
 - D None
- (x) Tollen's test is used for the detection of
 - A Aldehydes only
 - B Ketones only
 - C Both A and B
 - D None
- (xi) Aldol condensation is
 - A Electrophilic
 - B Base catalyzed
 - C Acid catalyzed
 - D None
- (xii) Which of the following does not give iodoform reaction?
 - A CH_3CH_2OH
 - B CH_3OH
 - C CH_3CHO
 - D None
- (xiii) Phenylhydrazine on treatment with carbonyl group form
 - A Phenyl hydrazones
 - B Hydroxyl amines
 - C Oximes
 - D None
- (xiv) acetals and ketals are formed by reaction of carbonyl compound with
 - A Acids
 - B Alcohols
 - C Phenols
 - D None
- (xv) Paraldehyde is a polymer of
 - A Acetaldehyde
 - B Formaldehyde
 - C Propionaldehyde
 - D None
- (xvi) isopropanal on treatment with CrO_3 in H_2SO_4 forms
 - A Acetone
 - B Acetaldehyde
 - C Propionaldehyde
 - D Propene
- (xvii) Which one of the following can undergo Aldol condensation reaction?
 - A Formaldehyde
 - B Acetaldehyde
 - C Benzaldehyde
 - D None

SUBJECTIVE

Total Marks Section B and C: 68

Time: 2.35 Hours

Section - B (Marks 42) (14 x 3 = 42)

Q2. Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not exceed 5 to 6 lines

- (i) The reactions in which two molecules combine to form new compounds with or without elimination of water are called condensation reactions.
 - a. What type of condensation will be shown by the following?
 - A CH_3CHO
 - B C_6H_5CHO
 - b. Write chemical equation along with mechanism for the conversion of CH_3CHO into products. (14)
- (ii) a. Why the aldehydes with no α hydrogen give Cannizzaro's reaction?
 - b. Distinguish between benzaldehyde and acetaldehyde.
- (iii) Show with the help of mechanism how acetaldehyde in the presence of strong base gives crotonaldehyde. (3)
- (iv) a. Write the formula of 2,4-Dinitrophenyl hydrazine and semicarbazide.
 - b. Give the mechanism of the reaction between formaldehyde and semicarbazide.

CH # 19: Aldehydes and Ketones

- (vi) Give a reaction example of disproportionation reaction of aldehyde.
- (vii) Give a general mechanism for the base-catalysed nucleophilic addition reaction of carbonyl.
- (viii) a) What is Tollen's test? Also give the reaction.
b) Convert acetone \rightarrow acetone hydrate.
- (ix) a) Briefly explain the reactivity of carbonyl group.
b) How can acetaldehyde be prepared by the dry distillation of a mixture having calcium salt of CH_3COO and CaH_2 .
- (x) a) What is the difference between an aldehyde and ketone?
b) What is formalin? How it can be obtained?
- (xi) a) Discuss the reactivity of carbonyl group.
b) What type of reactions aldehydes and ketones usually undergo?
- (xii) a) How α -hydroxy acids are obtained from aldehydes and ketones?
b) What is a haloform reaction? Give one example.
- (xiii) a) What kind of aldehydes and ketones give aldol condensation gives an example of each?
b) What kind of aldehydes give Cannizzaro's reaction?
c) Which aldehydes and ketones give haloform reactions?
- (xiv) a) What are acetals and how are they formed?
b) Why ketones do not undergo oxidation easily?
- (xv) a) Distinguish between ethanol and Propanone by a chemical test.
b) How will you distinguish between ethanol and propanal?
- (xvi) a) Describe briefly the mechanism of acid catalysed nucleophilic addition to a carbonyl compound.
b) What is Fehling's solution test? Give chemical equation.
- (xvii) a) Give three industrial uses of formaldehyde.
b) Give three industrial uses of Acetaldehyde.
- (xviii) a) Give the mechanism of addition of addition of HCN to Acetone.
b) Write the applications of Iodoform test?
- (xix) a) Why formaldehyde do not give aldol condensation reaction?
b) Give general mechanism of addition of phenyl hydrazine to acetaldehyde?
- (xx) a) How may acetaldehyde be prepared on industrial scale?
b) What is Benedict solution test?

Section - C

Note: Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. (2 \times 13 = 26)

- Q. 3** a) How will you prepare formaldehyde on industrial scale?
b) What is Cannizzaro's reaction? Write its mechanism.
c) How formaldehyde reacts with following:
(i) HCN (ii) H_2SO_4 (iii) NaHSO_3
d) Define and explain aldol condensation along with mechanism.
- Q. 4** a) Write mechanisms of the following reactions:
(i) Cannizzaro's reaction
(ii) Addition of sodium bisulphide to acetone
b) How does acetaldehyde react with the following:

1. CH_3MgI ii. $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7, \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ iii. NaHSO_3 iv. NaOH

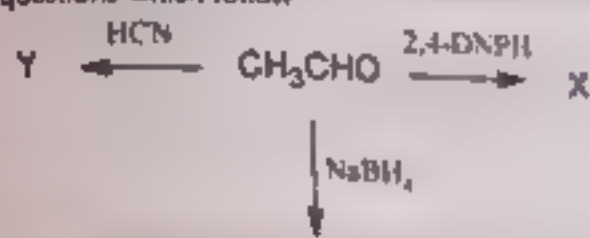
Give the following reductions of aldehydes and ketones along with mechanism:

(i) NaBH_4 (ii) Catalytic reduction

a. How will you identify carbonyl compounds by?

(i) 2, 4-DNP test (ii) Sodium bisulphate test

b. Consider the following series of reactions involving Ethanal then answer the questions which follow:



(i) Draw the structural formula of the compound Y and Z

(ii) Describe the appearance of the compound X. Give its name. Give the mechanism for the reaction of Ethanal with 2, 4-DNP to produce compound X. (05)

c. Give a chemical test by which you could distinguish between Ethanal and Propanone

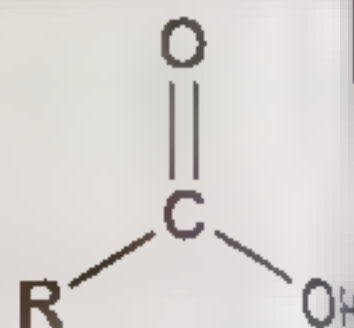
d. How will you bring about the following conversions?

(i) Propanone into 2-Propanol

(ii) Methanol to propanoic acid

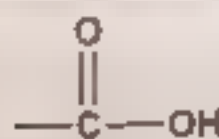
CHAPTER # 20

CARBOXYLIC ACIDS AND FUNCTIONAL DERIVATIVES

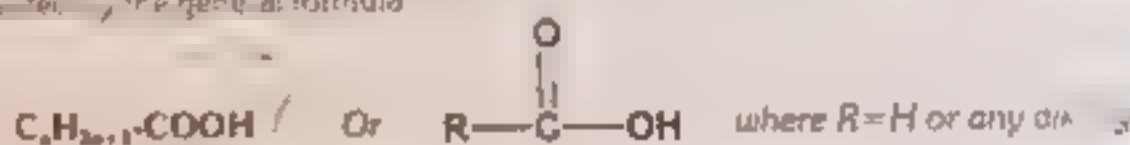


INTRODUCTION

- Compounds containing the carboxyl group in the molecule are called carboxylic acids.



- Aliphatic carboxylic acids have the carboxyl group attached with an open chain of carbon atom, the general formula

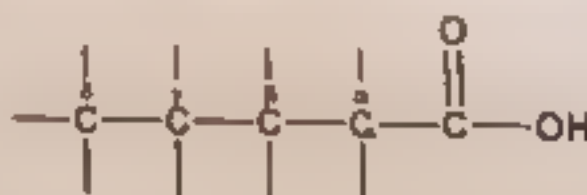


- There are organic compounds which contain more than one carboxylic groups in the molecule. These dicarboxylic acids and tricarboxylic acids etc. are formed

NOMENCLATURE

Common Names

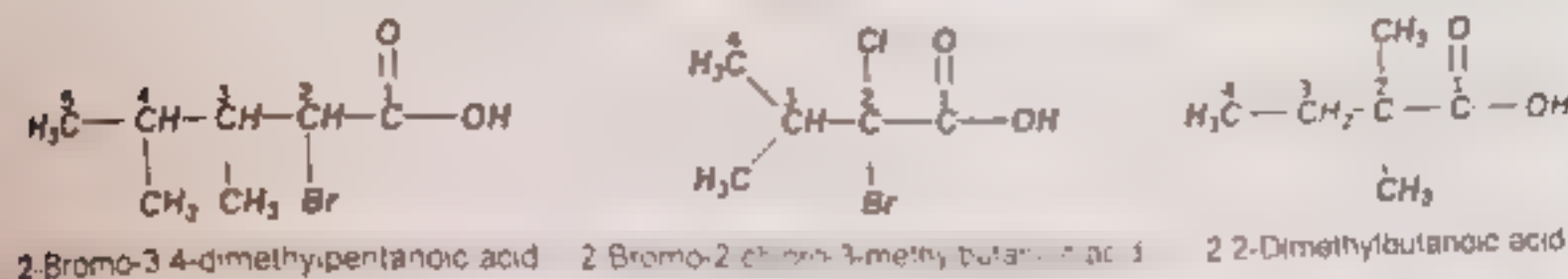
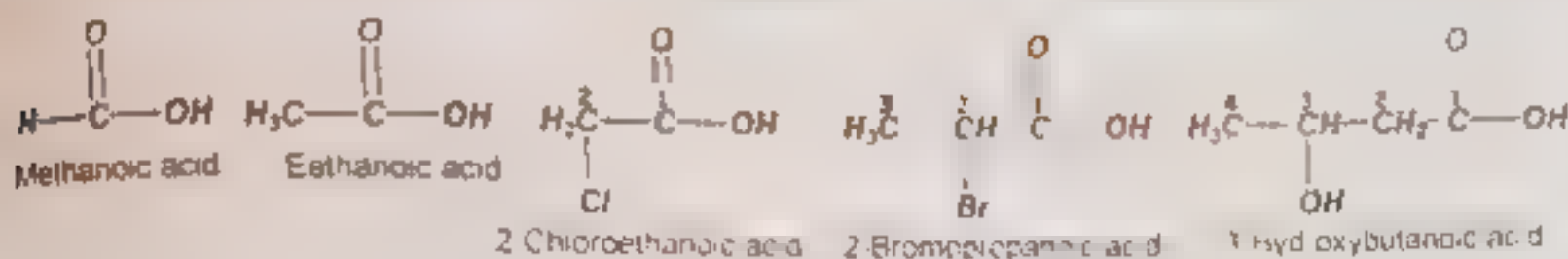
- Many carboxylic acids are known by their common names
- The positions of other groups attached with the chain containing the carboxyl group are indicated with Greek letters α , β etc
- The carbon adjacent to the carboxylic group is called the α (alpha) carbon. The carbon atom next to it is called the β (beta) carbon and so on. The carbon atom in the carboxyl group is not the α carbon e.g.



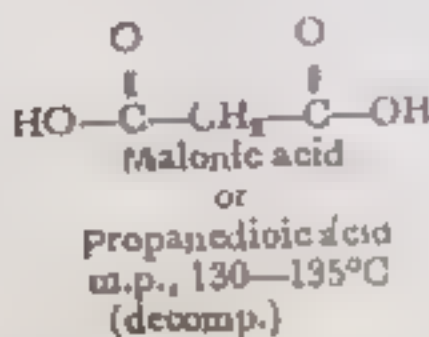
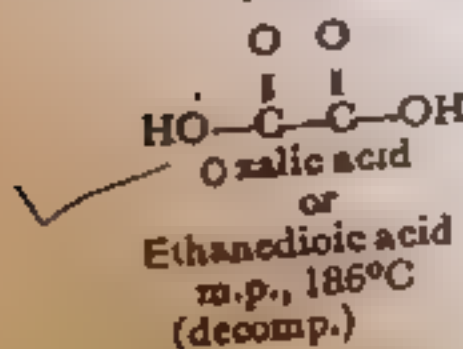
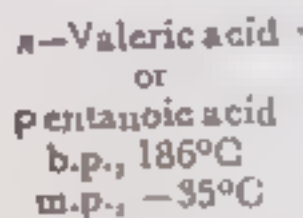
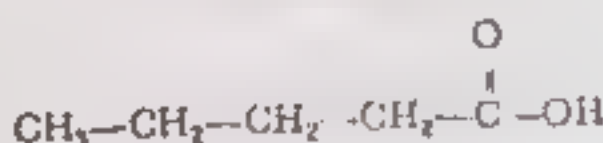
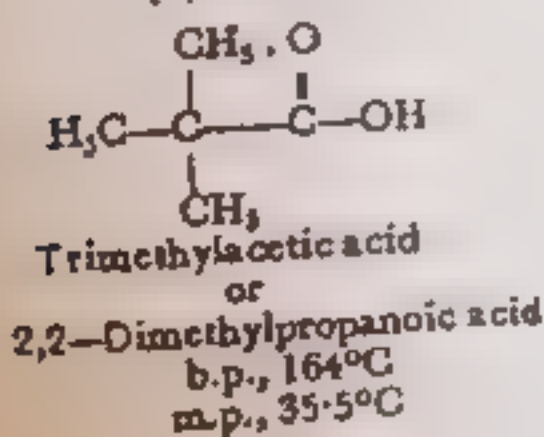
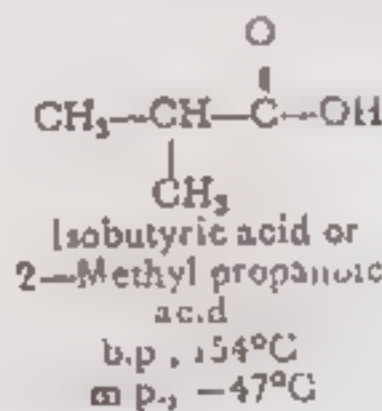
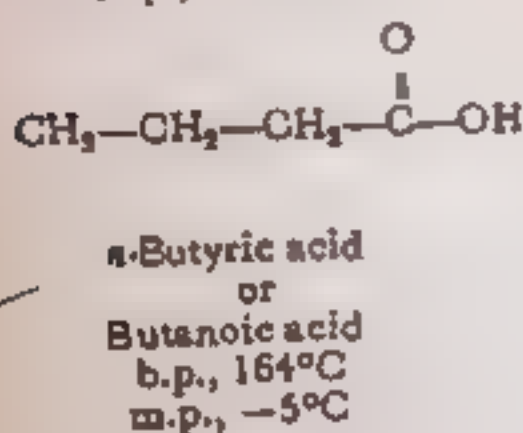
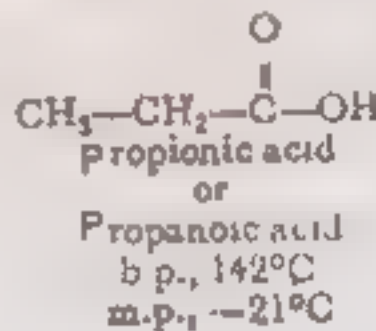
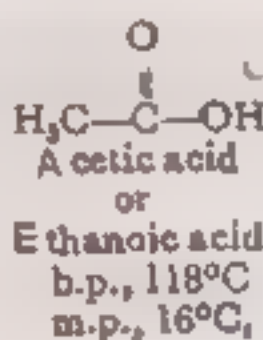
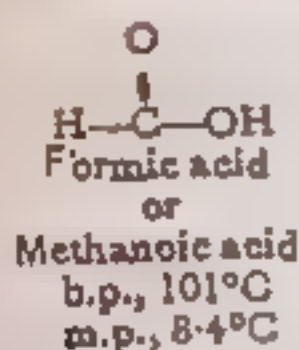
The IUPAC System

Aliphatic Carboxylic Acids

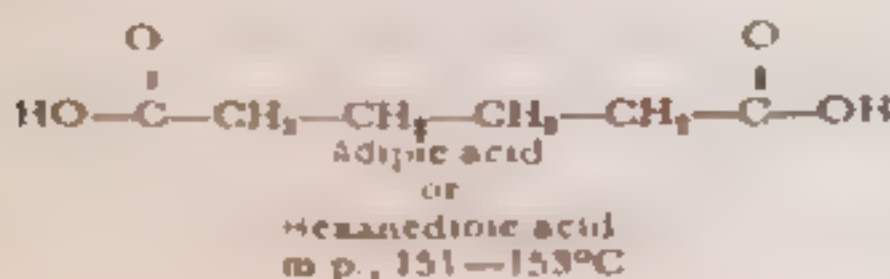
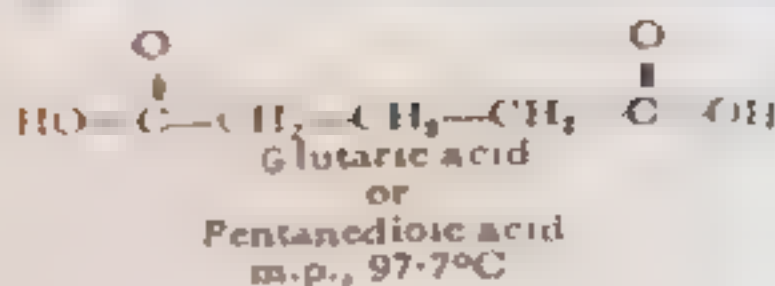
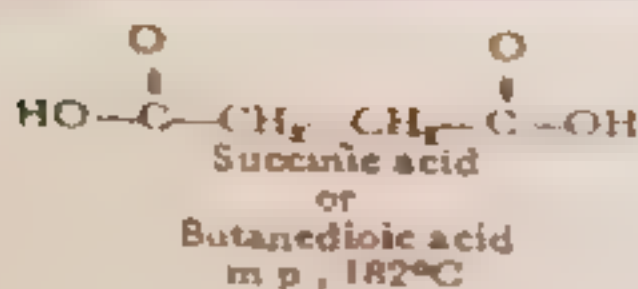
- Select the longest carbon chain containing the carboxyl group
- Change the 'e' of the corresponding alkane to 'oic acid'
- Numbering of the carbon begins with the carbon of the carbonyl group
- Since the carboxyl group is always present at one end therefore its position is not mentioned
- Substituents are also named and their position is indicated



The names and the structural formulae as well as boiling points and melting points are also given.

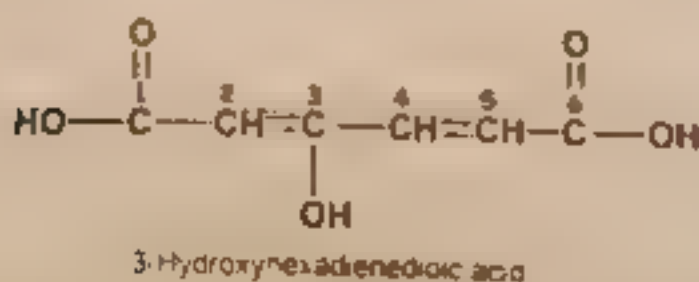
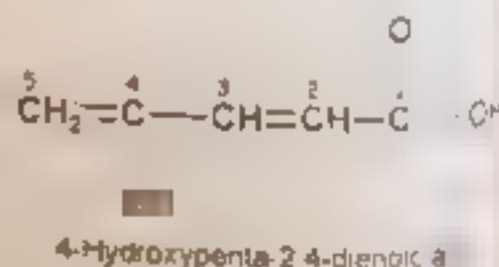
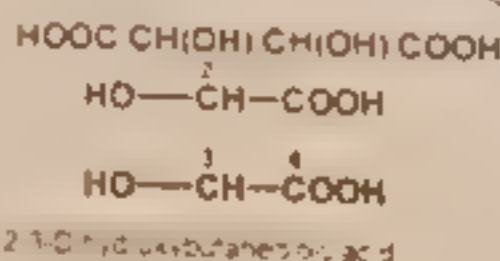
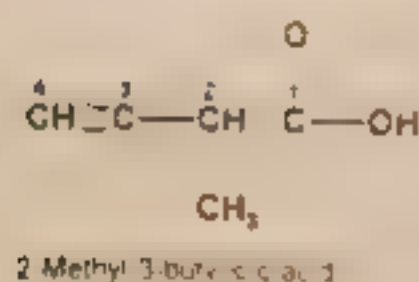
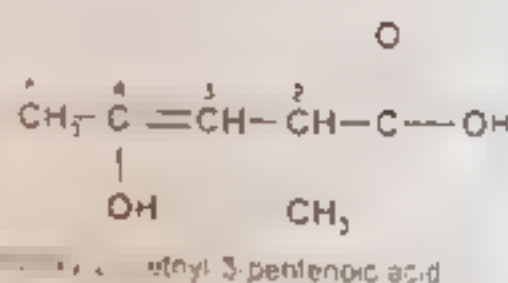
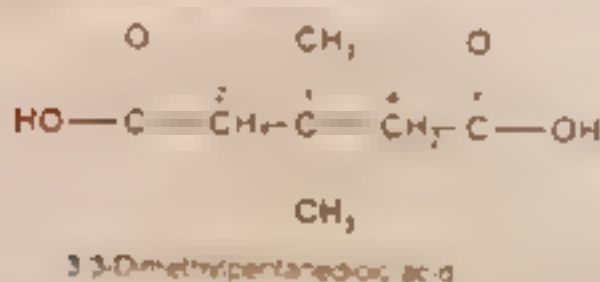
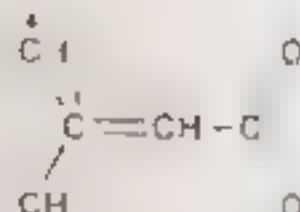
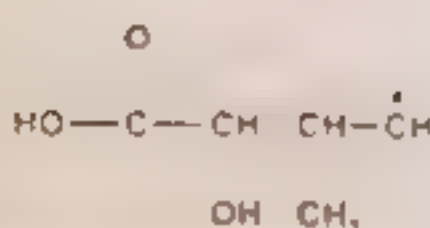
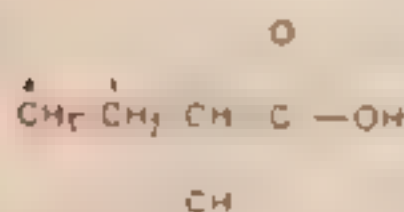


II



MORE PRACTICE

CH₃CHCHCH₂COOH



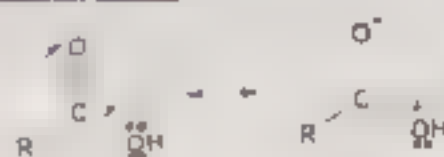
PHYSICAL PROPERTIES:

The C=O and O-H groups are polar due to the electronegativity difference. The polar nature of both the O-H and C=O bonds results in the formation of hydrogen bonds with other carboxylic acid molecules or other H-bonding systems (e.g. water). The results are

- higher melting and boiling points compared to similar alcohols
- high solubility in aqueous media
- hydrogen bonded dimers in gas phase and dimers or aggregates in the liquid

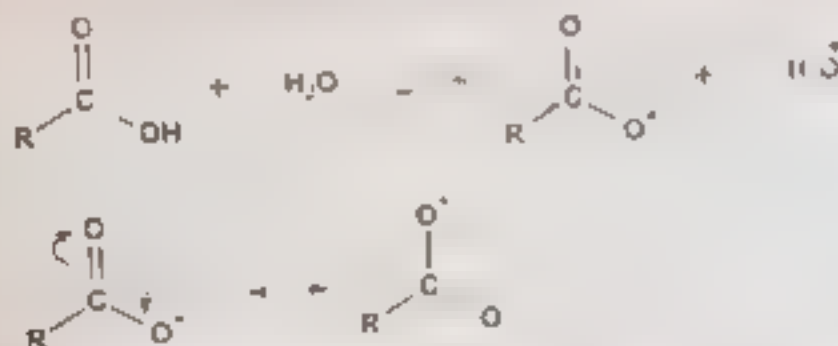
STRUCTURE:

- The COOH unit is planar and consistent with sp^2 hybridization
- There is a resonance interaction of the lone pairs of the hydroxyl oxygen with the π system of the carbonyl as shown in the figure



ACIDITY:

- Carboxylic acids are the most acidic simple organic compounds (pK_a range 4-10, compare with alcohols $pK_a \sim 16$). Remember: the lower the pK_a the stronger the acid. The acidity depends upon (i) donation of proton, (ii) stability of carboxylate anion. More ease of donation, i.e. greater stability of anion, stronger the acid. However, they are only weak acids compared to mineral acids. The carboxylate ion is stabilized due to resonance (eq. 2). The delocalization of the negative charge takes place between two electronegative oxygen atoms.



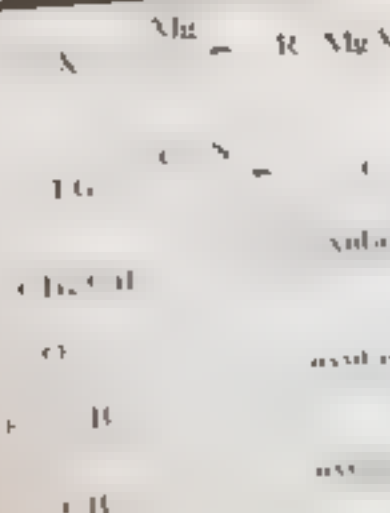
- Adjacent substituents increase the acidity because they withdraw negative charge and thus further stabilize the carboxylate anion.

Carboxylic Acid	Structure	pK_a	Carboxylic Acid	Structure	pK_a
Ethanoic acid	CH_3COOH	4.7	Acetic acid	CH_3COOH	4.7
Propanoic acid	CH_3CH_2COOH	4.9	Propionic acid	CH_3CH_2COOH	4.9
Fluoroethanoic acid	CH_3FCOOH	2.6	Fluoroacetic acid	CH_3FCOOH	2.6
Chloroethanoic acid	$CH_3ClCOOH$	2.9	Chloroacetic acid	$CH_3ClCOOH$	2.9

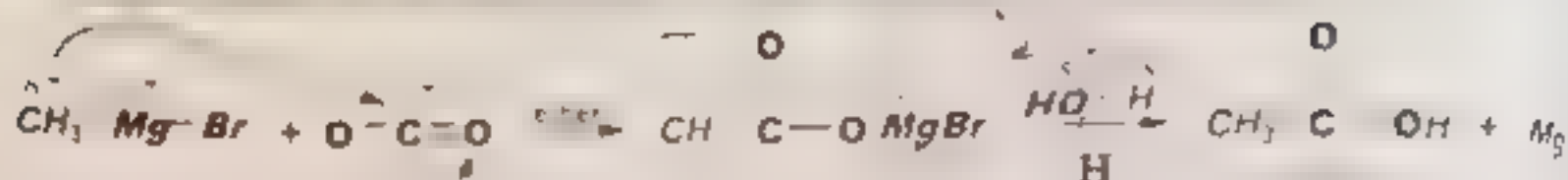
PREPARATIONS OF CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

Summary

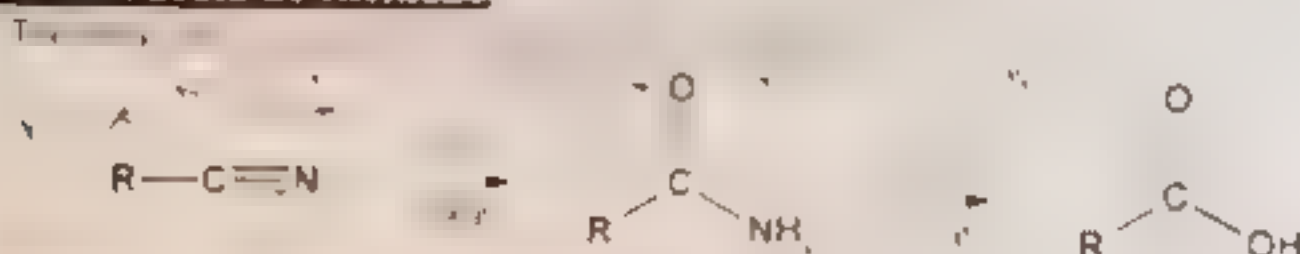
- Carbonation of Grignards
- Hydrolysis of Nitriles
- Oxidation of 1° Alcohols
- Oxidation of Aldehydes
- Oxidation of Alkyl Benzenes



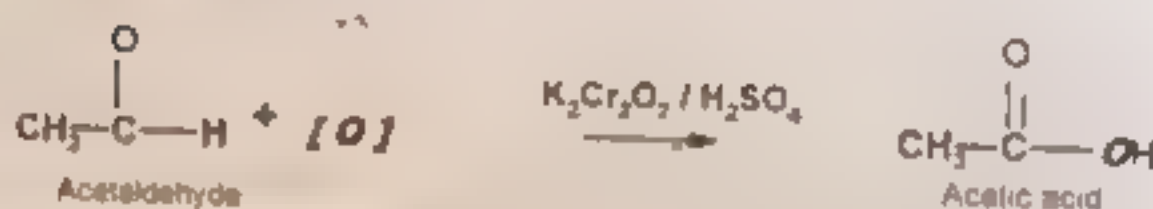
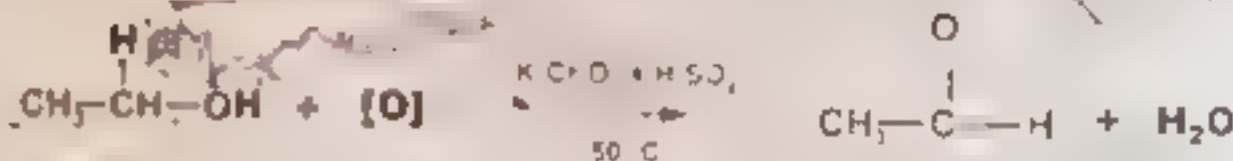
(1) CARBONATION OF GRIGNARD REAGENTS, $RMgX$, BY CO_2



(2) HYDROLYSIS OF NITRILES

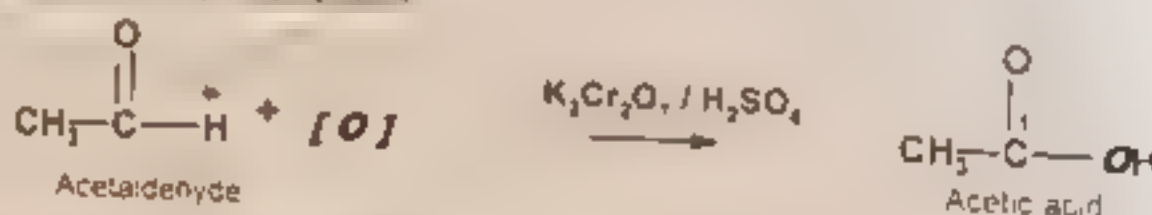


(3) OXIDATION OF PRIMARY ALCOHOLS



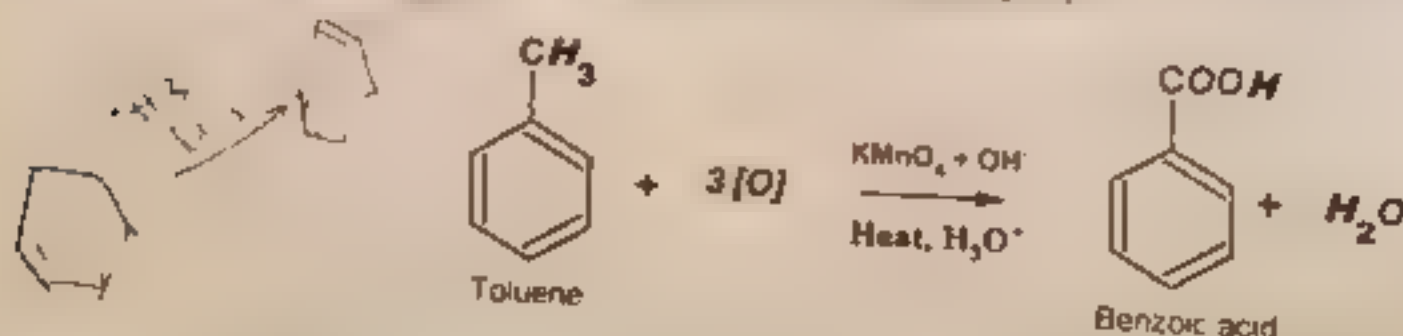
(4) OXIDATION OF ALDEHYDES

Aldehydes are oxidised to carboxylic acids.



(5) OXIDATION OF ALKYL BENZENES

Alkyl side chain on aromatic ring is oxidised to carboxyl group



REACTIVITY

- The carboxyl group shows a reactivity order: CH_3 and the alkyl groups
- In most reactions, the carboxyl group is changed
- However, the reaction of these functional groups is the same as the carboxyl group

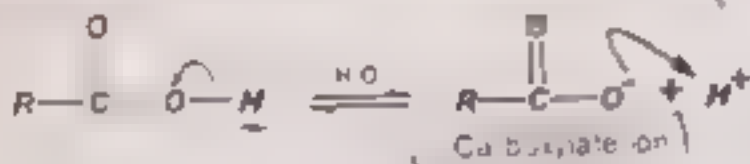
REACTIONS OF CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

Carboxylic acids undergo the following reactions:

- The reaction in which hydrogen atom of the carboxyl group is replaced by sodium ion (salt formation)
- The reaction in which OH group is replaced by another group
- The reaction involving other functional groups

(A) REACTION INVOLVING HYDROGEN ATOM OF THE CARBOXYL GROUP

Carboxylic acids are weak acids. They dissociate in water to form carboxylate ions and hydrogen ions.



In the presence of a base, the reaction proceeds to the right, as H_3O^+ ion

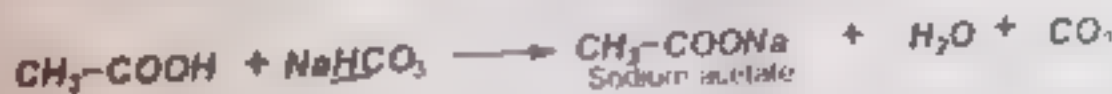
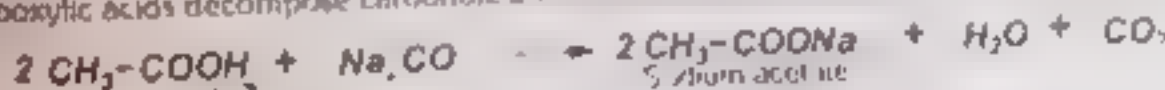
(1) REACTIONS WITH BASES

Carboxylic acids react with bases (NaOH, KOH) to form salts



(2) REACTION WITH CARBONATES AND BICARBONATES

Carboxylic acids decompose carbonate and bicarbonate to form carbon dioxide gas with effervescence



(3) REACTIONS WITH METALS

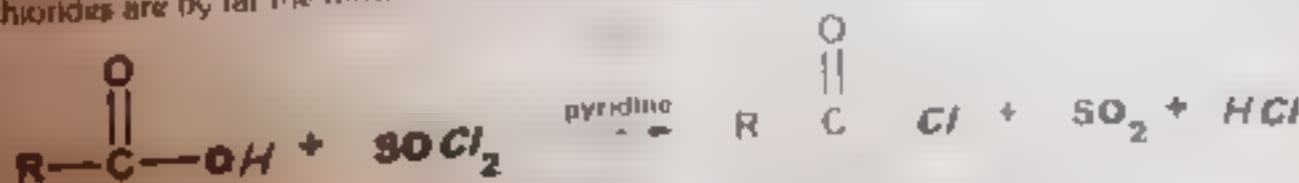
Carboxylic acids reaction with active metals (Na, K, Ca, Mg etc) to form their salts with the evolution of hydrogen gas



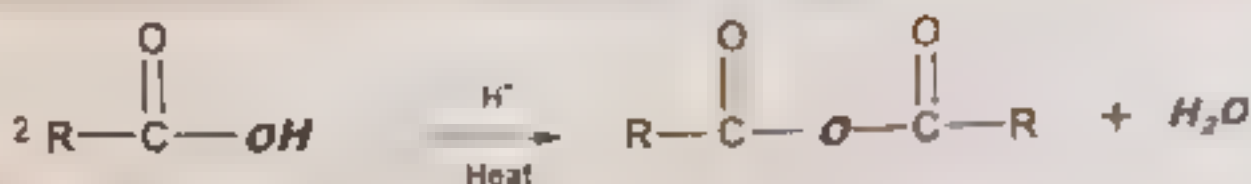
(B) REACTION INVOLVING OH GROUP OF THE CARBOXYL GROUP

(1) PREPARATION OF ACYL CHLORIDES

- Acyl chlorides are prepared by treating the carboxylic acid with thionyl chloride
- Acyl chlorides are by far the most common functional group of the acid halides

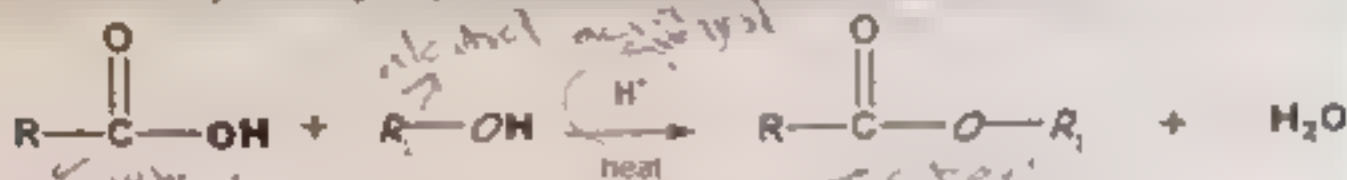


(2) PREPARATION OF ACID ANHYDRIDES

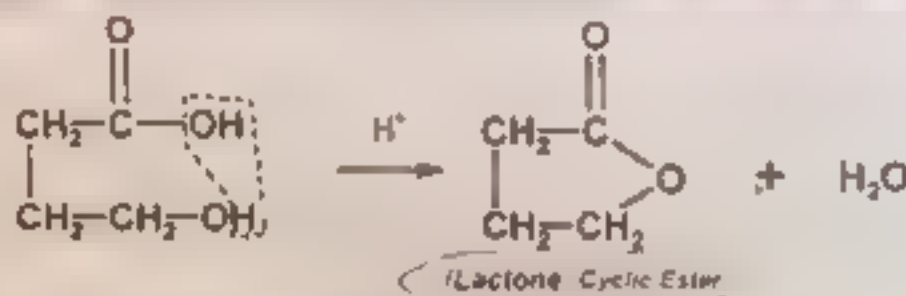


(3) PREPARATION OF ESTERS

Esters are obtained by refluxing the parent carboxylic acid with an appropriate alcohol with an



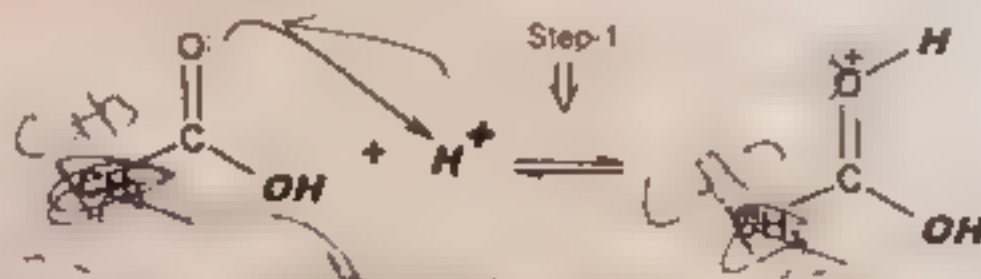
- This reaction is also known as the **Fischer esterification**
- ✓ The equilibrium can be driven to completion by using an excess of either the alcohol or the carboxylic acid or by removing the water as it forms
- Alcohol reactivity order is $\text{CH}_3\text{OH} > 1^\circ > 2^\circ > 3^\circ$. It is due to steric effects. Thus, larger the alkyl group, lesser the reactivity
- Esters can also be made from other carboxylic acid derivatives, especially acid chlorides, by reacting them with the appropriate alcohol in the presence of a weak base
- ✓ If a compound contains both hydroxy and carboxylic acid groups, it can form a cyclic ester (lactone) via an intramolecular reaction. Reactions that form 5- or 6-membered rings are favored.



Mechanism for Reaction for Acid Catalyzed Esterification

Step 1:

The O atom of carbonyl groups accepts a proton. The protonation of the carbonyl oxygen makes it electrophilic. It is an acid/base reaction.

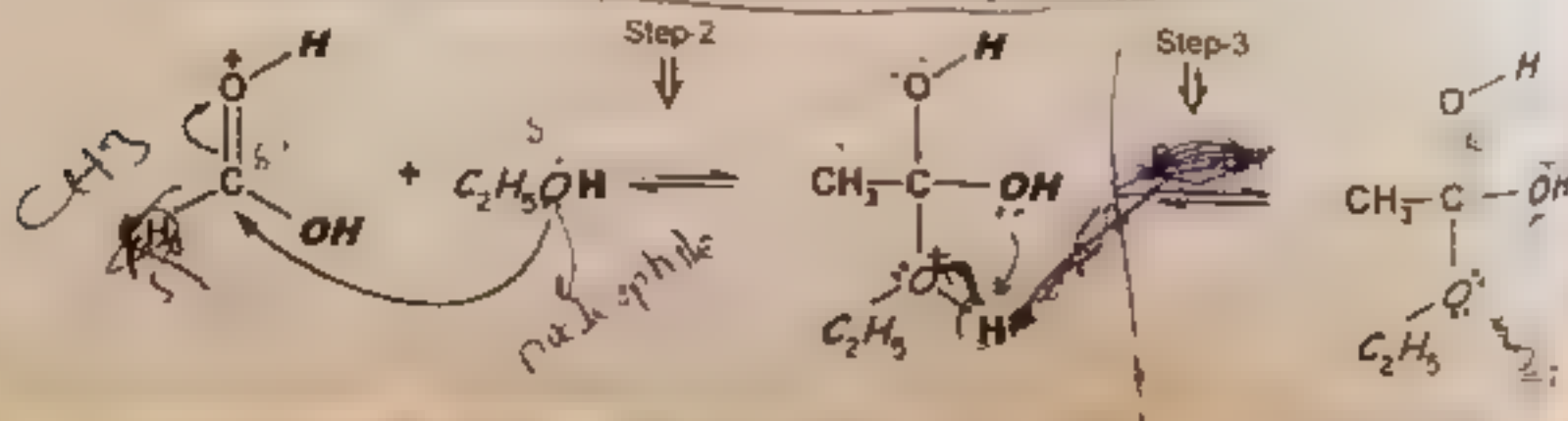


Step 2

The O-atom of alcohol functions as the nucleophile and attacks the electrophilic C in the C^+OH_2 . The C=O bonds are moved towards the oxonium ion and a tetrahedral intermediate is formed

Step 3:

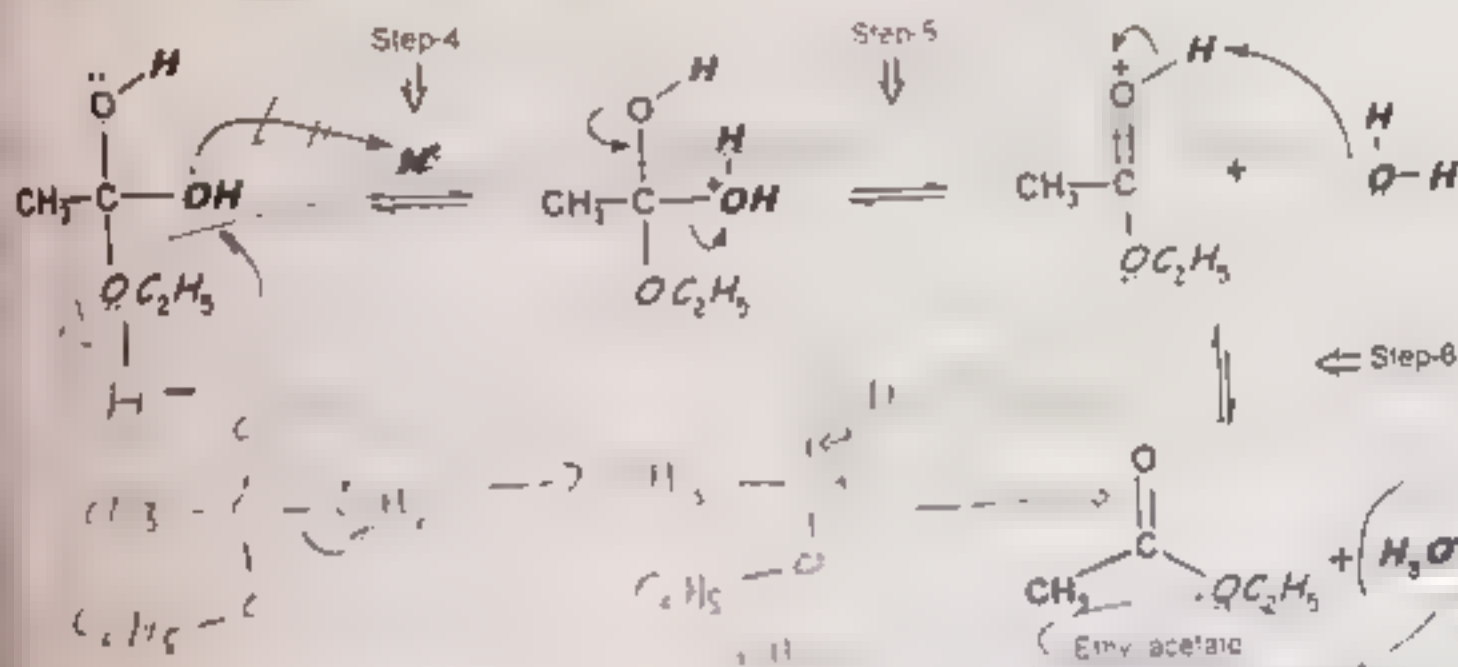
An acid/base reaction occurs. The alcoholic oxygen atom is deprotonated.



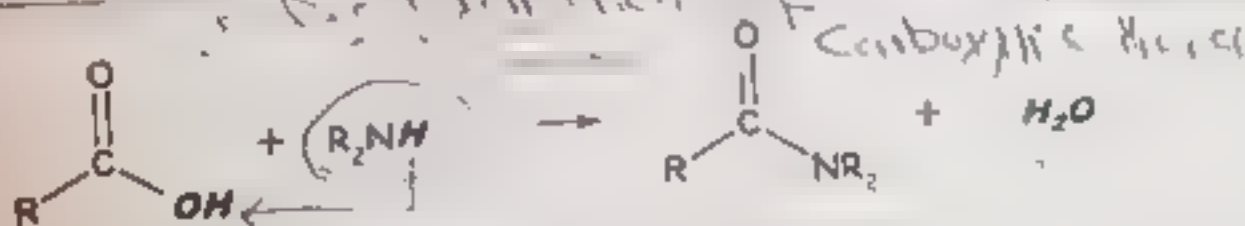
Step 4: An acid/base reaction occurs. The OH is to be removed. However, it is not a good leaving group, therefore it is converted into a good leaving group by protonation.

Step 5: The electrons of an adjacent oxygen help to push out the water group as a neutral water molecule. An oxonium ion is produced.

Step 6: An acid/base reaction occurs. The oxonium ion is deprotonated to give the ester product.



(4) PREPARATION OF AMIDES



In general, it is not easy to prepare amides directly from the parent carboxylic acid. It is because, the acid will protonate the amine. Thus, further reaction is stopped since the carboxylate is a poor electrophile and the ammonium ion is not nucleophilic.



It is much easier to convert the carboxylic acid to the more reactive acyl chloride.

(C) REACTION INVOLVING COOH GROUP AS A WHOLE

(1) REDUCTION TO ALCOHOLS

Carboxylic acids are reduced to primary alcohols



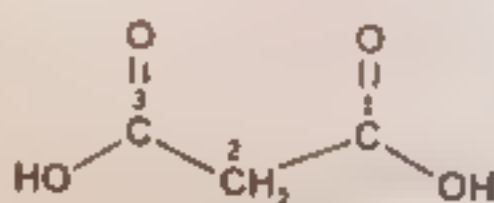
Carboxylic acids are less reactive to reduction than aldehydes and ketones. Carboxylic acids can only be reduced by LiAlH_4 and NOT by the less reactive NaBH_4 .

(2) DECARBOXYLATION

Loss of carbon dioxide is called decarboxylation



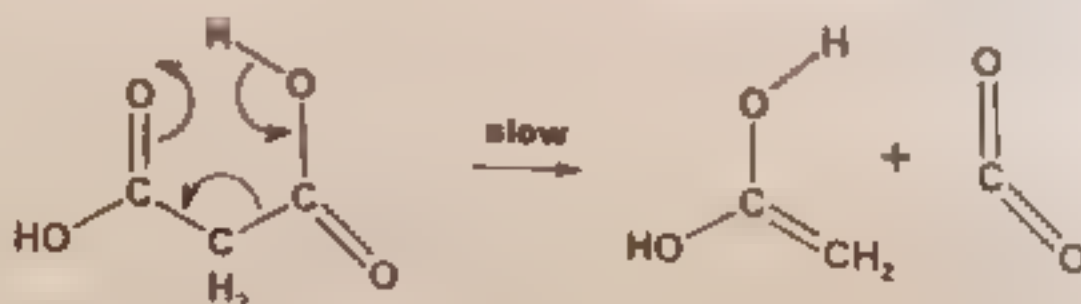
- Simple carboxylic acids rarely undergo decarboxylation
- Carboxylic acids with a carbonyl group at the 3 or 4 position readily undergo decarboxylation e.g. derivatives of malonic acid



The reaction proceeds via a cyclic transition state giving an enol intermediate that tautomerises to the acid product.

Step 1.

The reaction mechanism involves transfer of the proton from the OH group of one carboxylic acid to the carbonyl oxygen of the other COOH group. Thus, O-H and C-C bonds are broken and π bonds are formed. The reaction is concerted.



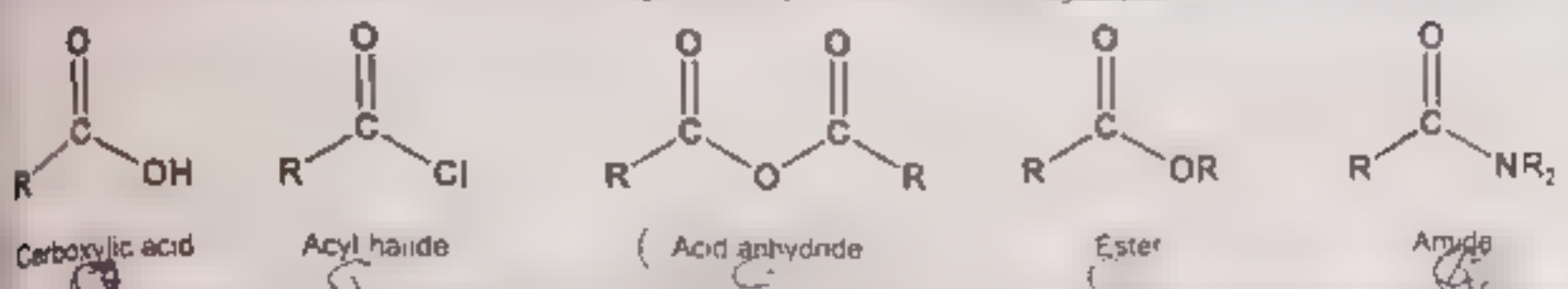
Step 2

Tautomerization of the enol of the carboxylic acid forms the acid product



ELABORATION OF REACTIONS THAT INTERCONVERT CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

The carboxylic acid derivatives are a family of closely related functional groups



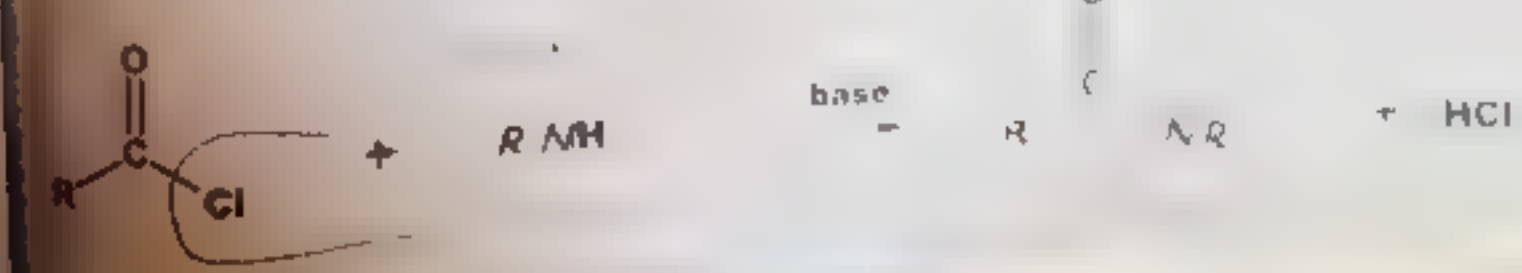
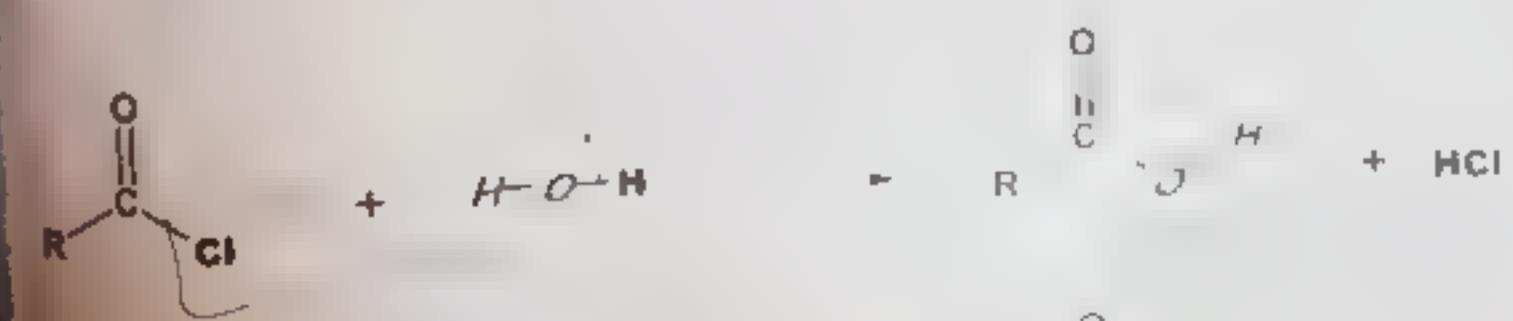
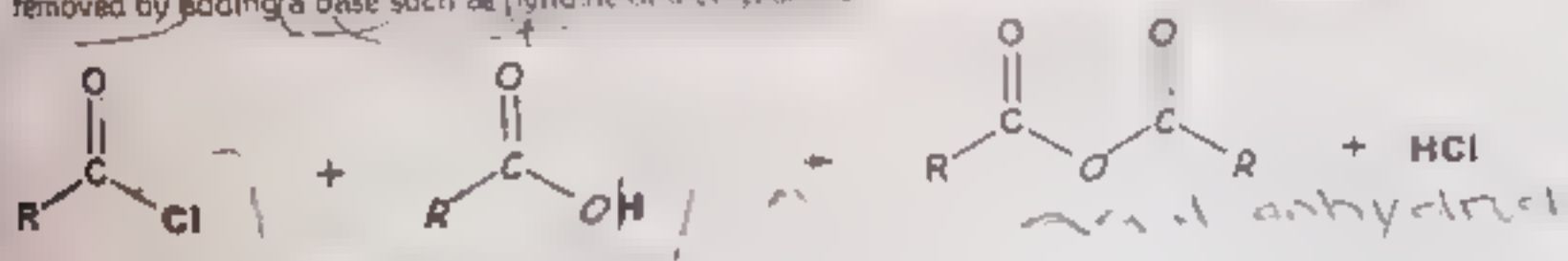
- Each contain a $\text{C}=\text{O}$ group with a heteroatom attached. Thus these are different from aldehydes and ketones
- They can all be prepared from the parent carboxylic acid. On hydrolysis they all convert back to the carboxylic acid
- They share a common reactivity pathway with nucleophiles called **Nucleophilic Acyl Substitution**

IMPORTANT
The reactivity order is: acyl chloride > anhydride > ester > carboxylic acid > amide > carboxylate

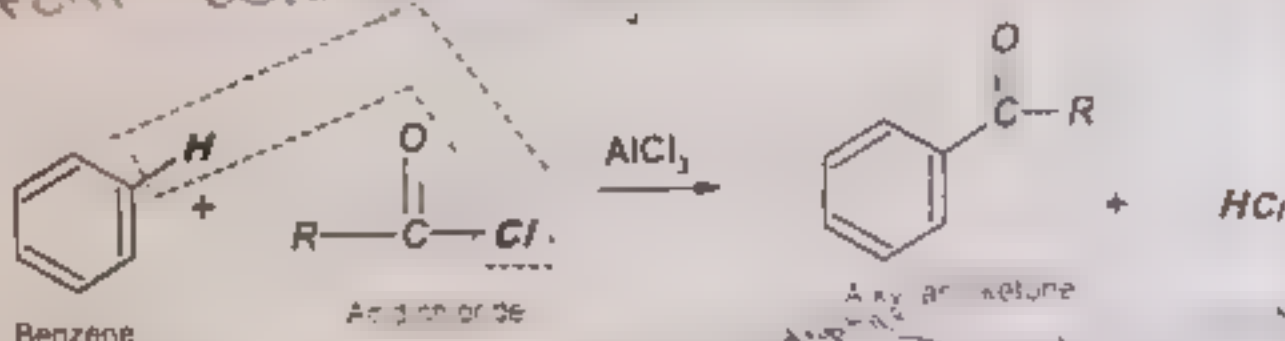
REACTIONS OF CARBOXYLIC ACID DERIVATIVES

REACTIONS OF ACYL HALIDES

- Acyl chlorides are the most reactive of the carboxylic acid derivatives. They can be readily converted into other carboxylic acid derivatives.
- They react quite readily with cold water and hydrolyze to the carboxylic acid. The HCl by product is usually removed by adding a base such as pyridine or triethylamine



FRIEDEL-CRAFTS ACYLATION OF BENZENE

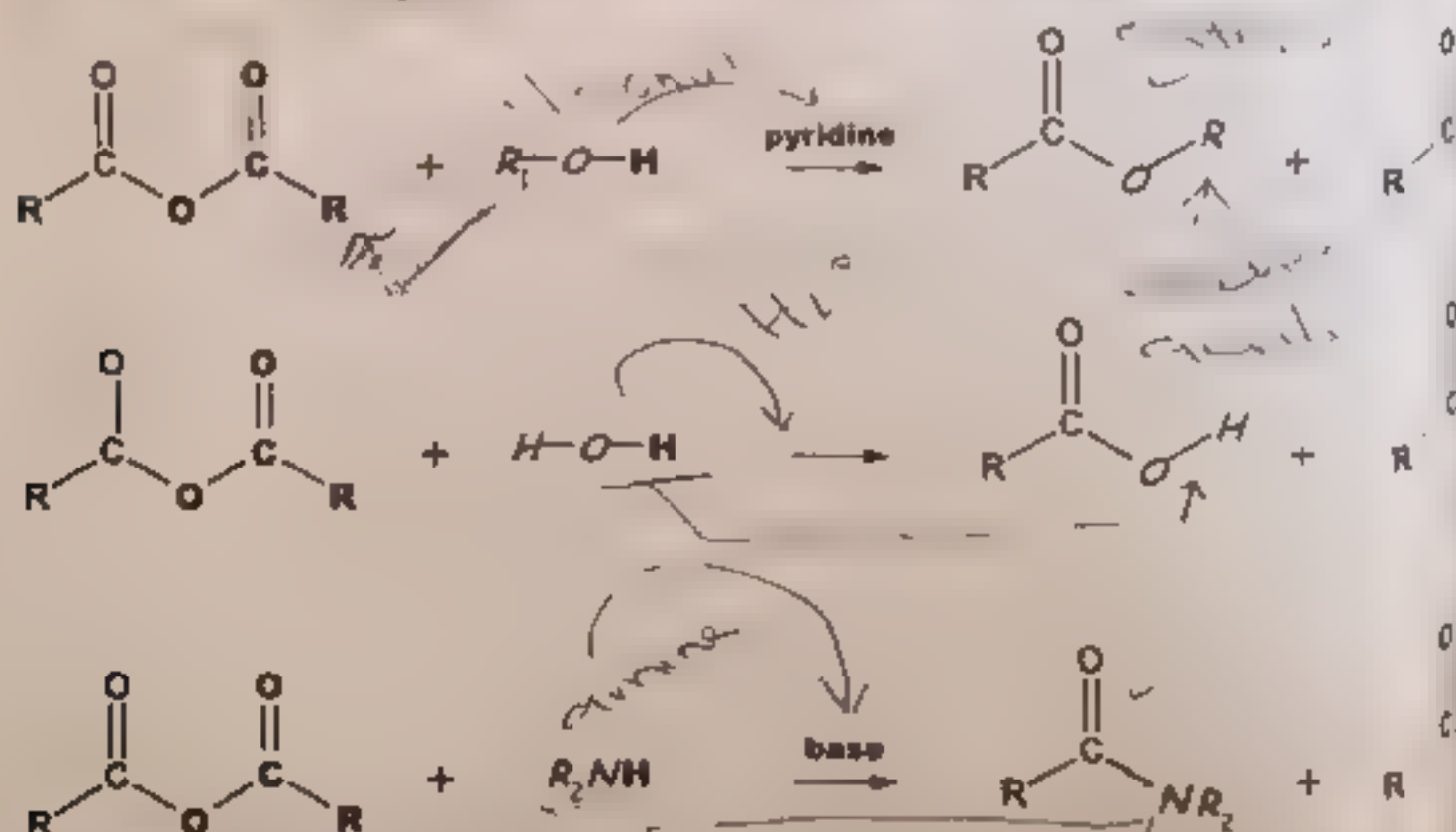


- 1. Overall transformation: $\text{Ar-H} \rightarrow \text{Ar-COR}$ (a ketone)
- 2. Named after Friedel and Crafts who discovered the reaction
- 3. Reagents: normally the acyl halide (e.g. usually, RCOCl) with aluminum trichloride catalyst.
- 4. The AlCl₃ enhances the electrophilicity of the acyl halide by complexing with the halogen.
- 5. Electrophilic species: the acyl cation or acylium ion i.e. RCO⁺ formed by the reaction of the acyl halide with the Lewis acid catalyst.
- 6. Friedel-Crafts reactions are limited to arenes as or more reactive than mono halobenzenes.
- 7. Other sources of acylium can also be used such as acid anhydrides with AlCl₃.
- 8. The reaction can still be called as a **Nucleophilic Acyl Substitution** of the acyl halide. It is because overall we have a nucleophile (here the p bond of an aromatic ring) attacking a group (chloride) at the electrophilic C=O.

REACTIONS OF ACID ANHYDRIDES

Acid anhydrides are the second most reactive of the carboxylic acid derivatives and can be readily converted into the other less reactive carboxylic acid derivatives.

- A base is often added to neutralize the carboxylic acid by product that is formed.



Lone pair on N or O
Nucleophiles: $\text{NH}_3, \text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{CH}_3\text{S}^-$

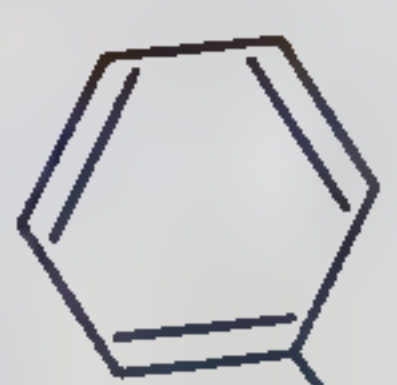
Lone pairs accept $\text{BF}_3, \text{Al}^{3+}, \text{Fe}^{3+}$
Electrophiles: H^+
The proton

→ $\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \parallel \\ \text{C} \\ | \\ \text{R} \end{array}$ \leftarrow An acyl group is a functional group with formula R-CO- where R is bound to the carbonyl carbon with a single bond.

- Acyl groups are formed when one or more hydroxyl groups (or -OH) are removed from an oxoacid.

Ester ketones / aldehydes \leftarrow contain a carbonyl group bonded to an oxygen atom.

Functional group \leftarrow where a bond is bound.



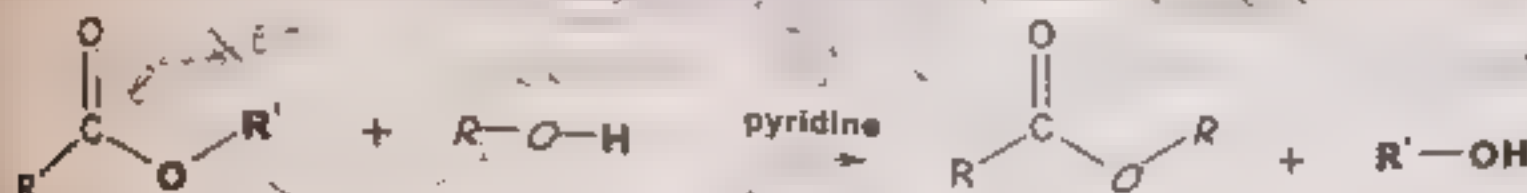
Alkyl and acyl groups

REACTIONS OF ESTERS

ESTERS can be converted into other esters (transesterification)

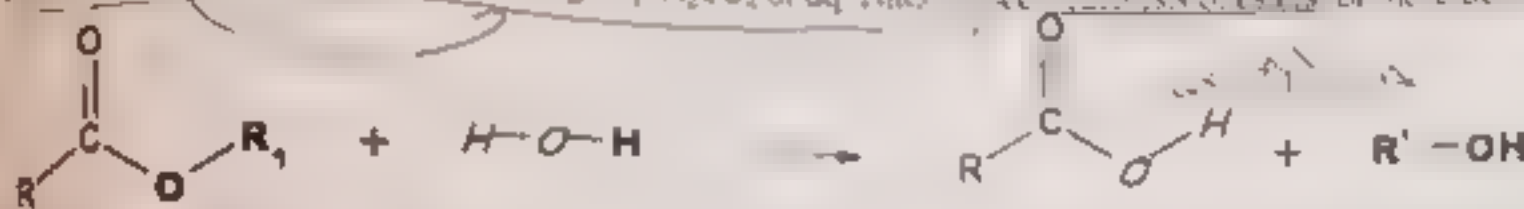
TRANSESTERIFICATION

Heat the ester with alcohol and acid catalyst



HYDROLYSIS

Heat the ester with aq. acid or base (e.g. aq. H_2SO_4 or aq. $NaOH$)



AMIDE PREPARATION

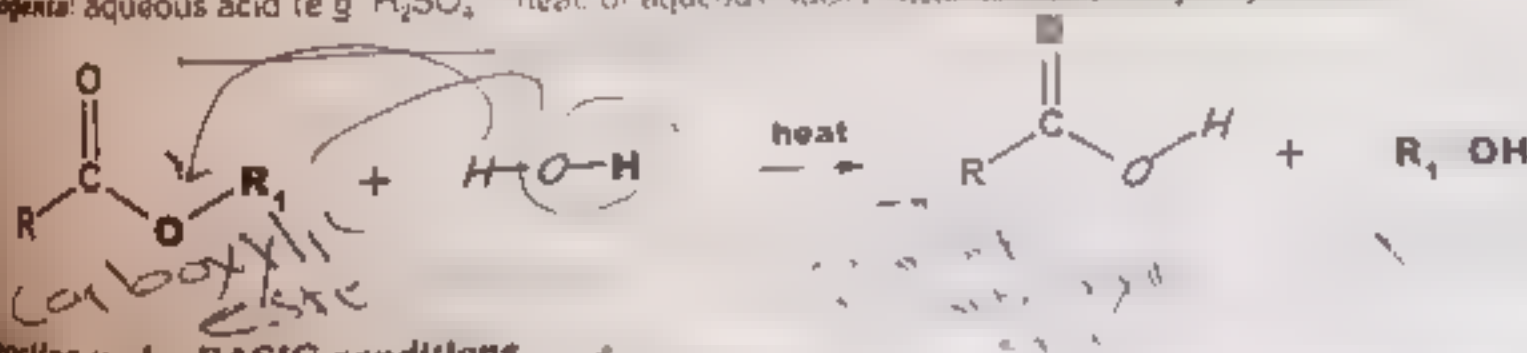
Heat the ester with the amine (methyl or ethyl esters are the most reactive)



HYDROLYSIS OF ESTERS

Carboxylic esters hydrolyze to the parent carboxylic acid and an alcohol

Reagents: aqueous acid (e.g. H_2SO_4) + heat or aqueous $NaOH$ + heat known as **saponification**



Reaction under BASIC conditions.

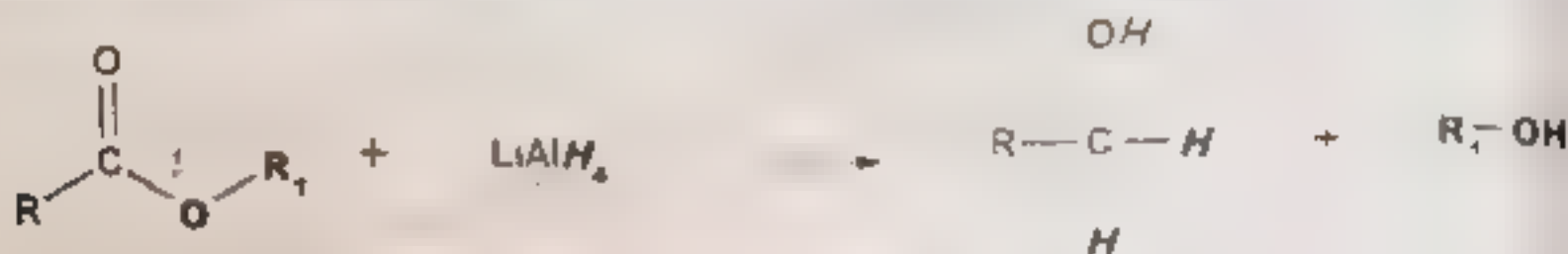
- The mechanism shown leads to acyl oxygen cleavage
- The mechanism is supported by experiments using ^{18}O labeled compounds
- This reaction is known as "**saponification**" because it is the basis of making soap from glycerol triesters
- The mechanism is an example of the reactive system type

Reaction under ACIDIC conditions.

- The acid catalyzed mechanism is the reverse of the esterification
- The mechanism shown also leads to acyl oxygen cleavage
- The mechanism is an example of the less reactive system type

REDUCTION OF ESTERS

Carboxylic esters are reduced by LiAlH_4 to primary alcohols. The reaction involves the carbonyl group.



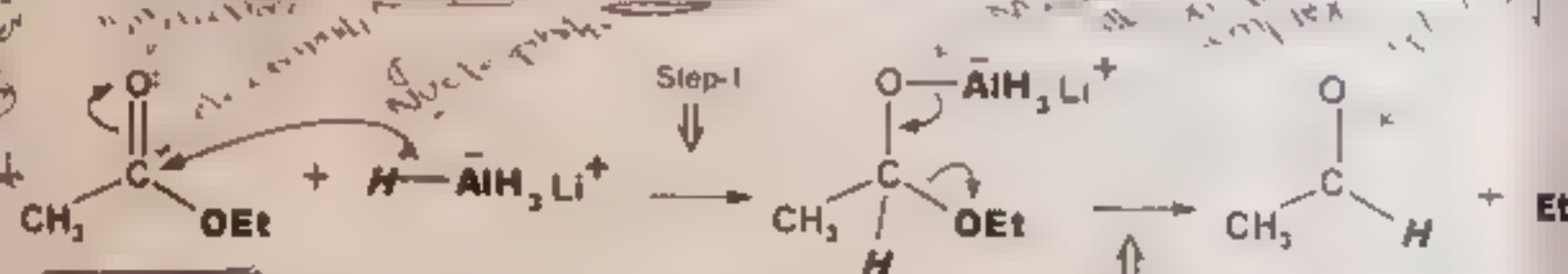
- ✓ Esters are less reactive towards nucleophiles.
- ✓ They can only be reduced by LiAlH_4 NOT NaBH_4 .
- ✓ The reaction requires that 2 hydrides are used.
- ✓ The mechanism is an example of the nucleophilic addition-elimination mechanism.
- ✓ Note the aldehyde intermediate.

Step 1:

- The nucleophilic H^- from the hydride reagent attacks the carbonyl carbon of the ester.
- The electrons from the $\text{C}=\text{O}$ move to the electronegative oxygen creating a tetrahedral intermediate.

Step 2:

- The tetrahedral intermediate collapses and displaces the alkoxide group.
- This produces an aldehyde as an intermediate.

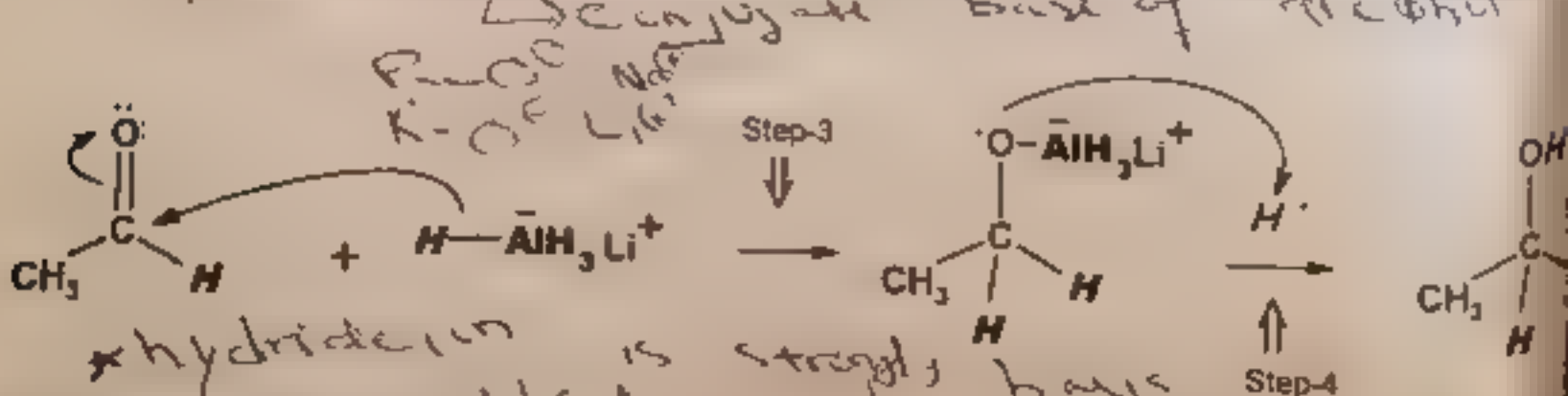


Step 3:

- Now the aldehyde is reduced. The nucleophilic H^- from the hydride reagent attacks the carbonyl carbon of the aldehyde.
- The electrons from the $\text{C}=\text{O}$ move to the electronegative oxygen creating an alkoxide intermediate.

Step 4:

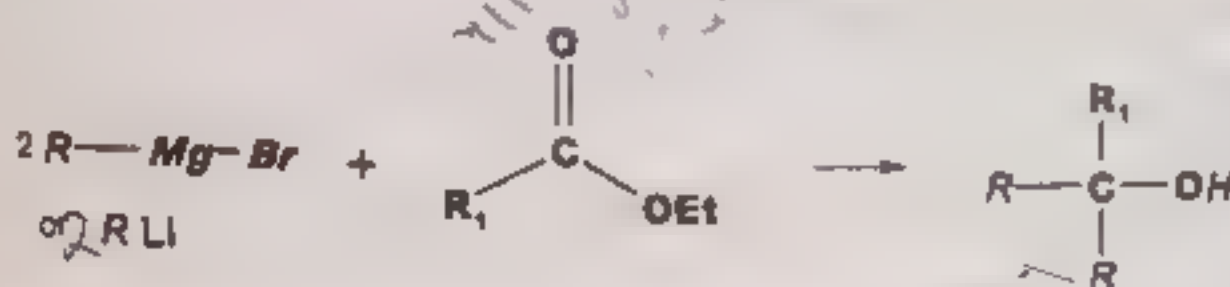
- This is the work-up step. It is a simple acid base reaction.
- Protonation of the alkoxide oxygen produces the primary alcohol product from the intermediate.



Handwritten note: "Hydride ion is strongly basic but not nucleophilic. A reagent that acts as the hydride ion would if it were nucleophilic. Called a hydride reagent."

REACTIONS OF RLi AND RMgX WITH ESTERS

Carboxylic esters, $R'CO_2R''$, react with 2 equivalents of organolithium or Grignard reagents to give tertiary alcohols.



- ✓ The tertiary alcohol that results contains 2 identical alkyl groups from R in the scheme
- The reaction proceeds via a ketone intermediate which then reacts with the second equivalent of the organometallic reagent (review)
- ✓ Since the ketone is more reactive than the ester, the reaction cannot be used as a preparation of ketones
- ✓ The mechanism is an example of the reactive system type

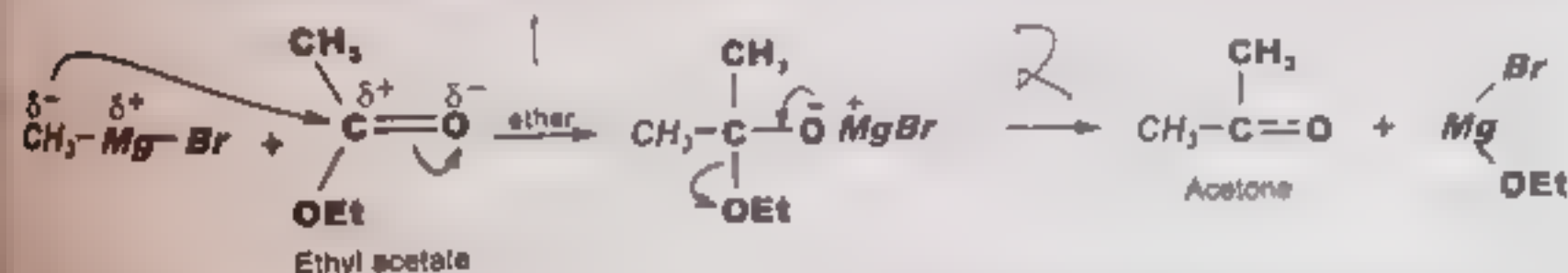
Mechanism

Step 1:

- The nucleophilic C in the organometallic reagent adds to the electrophilic C in the polar carbonyl group of the ester.
- The electrons from the $C=O$ move to the electronegative O creating an intermediate metal alkoxide complex.

Step 2:

- The tetrahedral intermediate collapses and displaces the alcohol portion of the ester as a leaving group
- This produces a ketone as an intermediate

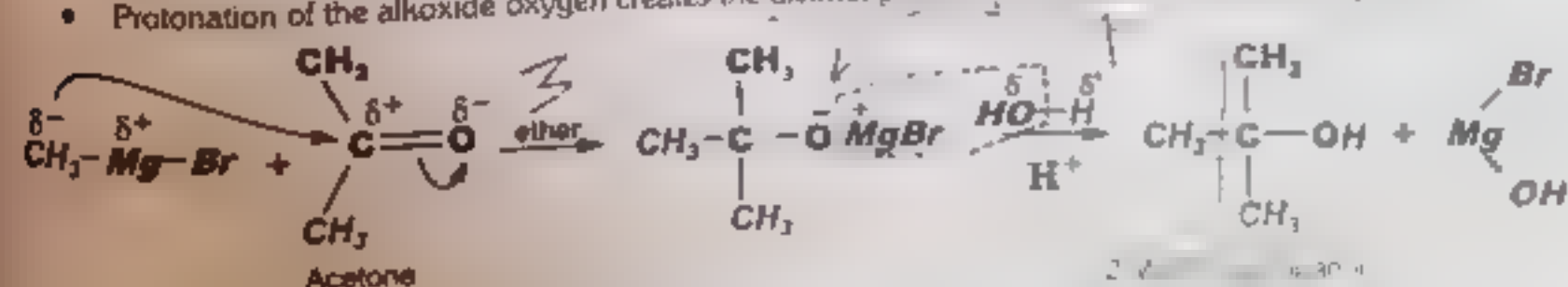


Step 3:

- The nucleophilic C in the organometallic reagent adds to the electrophilic C in the polar carbonyl group of the ketone
- The electrons from the $C=O$ move to the electronegative O creating an intermediate metal alkoxide complex.

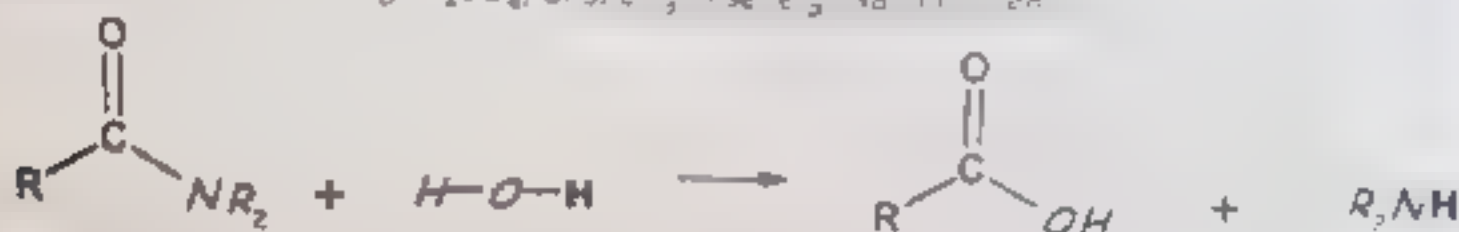
Step 4:

- This is the work-up step. It is a simple acid base reaction.
- Protonation of the alkoxide oxygen creates the alcohol product from the intermediate complex



REACTIONS OF AMIDES

- Amides are the least reactive of the neutral carboxylic acid derivatives
- The only interconversion reaction for amides will go from amide to the parent carboxylic acid and the amine
- Reagents: Strong acid (e.g. H_2SO_4) or strong base (e.g. NaOH) + heat



HYDROLYSIS OF AMIDES

- Amides hydrolyze to the parent carboxylic acid and the amine, acid or base
- The mechanisms are similar to those of esters
- Reagents: Strong acid (e.g. H_2SO_4) + heat (preferred) or strong base (e.g. NaOH) + heat



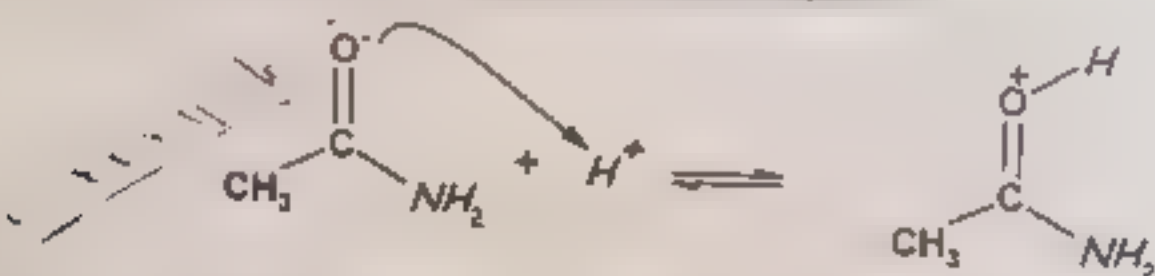
REACTION UNDER ACIDIC CONDITIONS

- Note that the acid catalyzed mechanism is analogous to the acid catalyzed hydrolysis of esters
- The mechanism shown below proceeds via protonation of the carbonyl not the amide N (see step 1)
- The mechanism is an example of the less reactive system type

MECHANISM OF THE ACID CATALYZED HYDROLYSIS OF AMIDES

Step 1:

- It is an acid/base reaction
- In this reaction water is a weak nucleophile and carbonyl group of amide is a weak electrophile. the ester is first activated by protonation
- Protonation of the amide carbonyl makes it more electrophilic

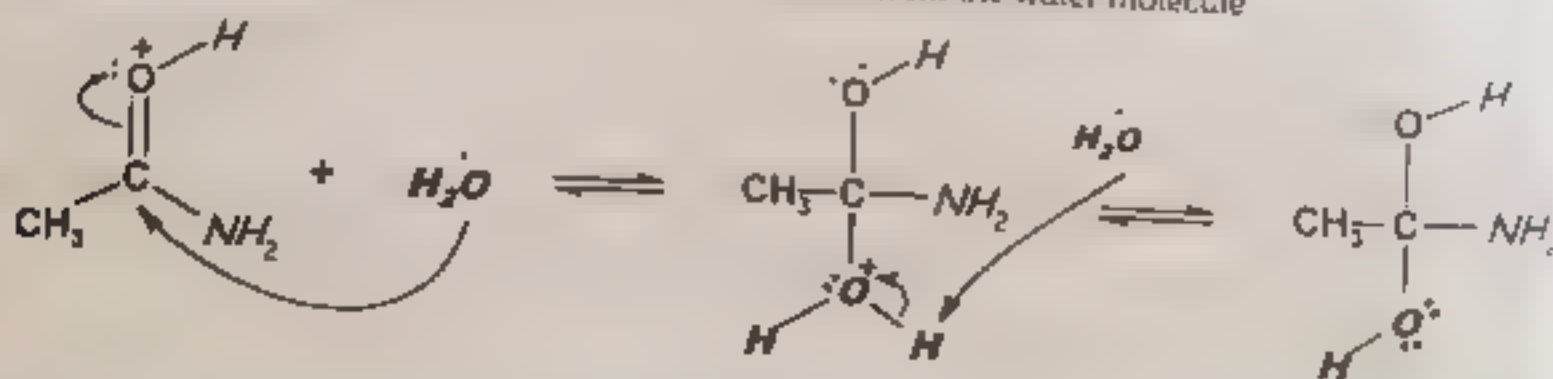


Step 2:

- The water O acts as the nucleophile and attacks the electrophilic C in the $\text{C}=\text{O}$
- The electrons are moved towards the oxonium ion creating the tetrahedral intermediate

Step 3:

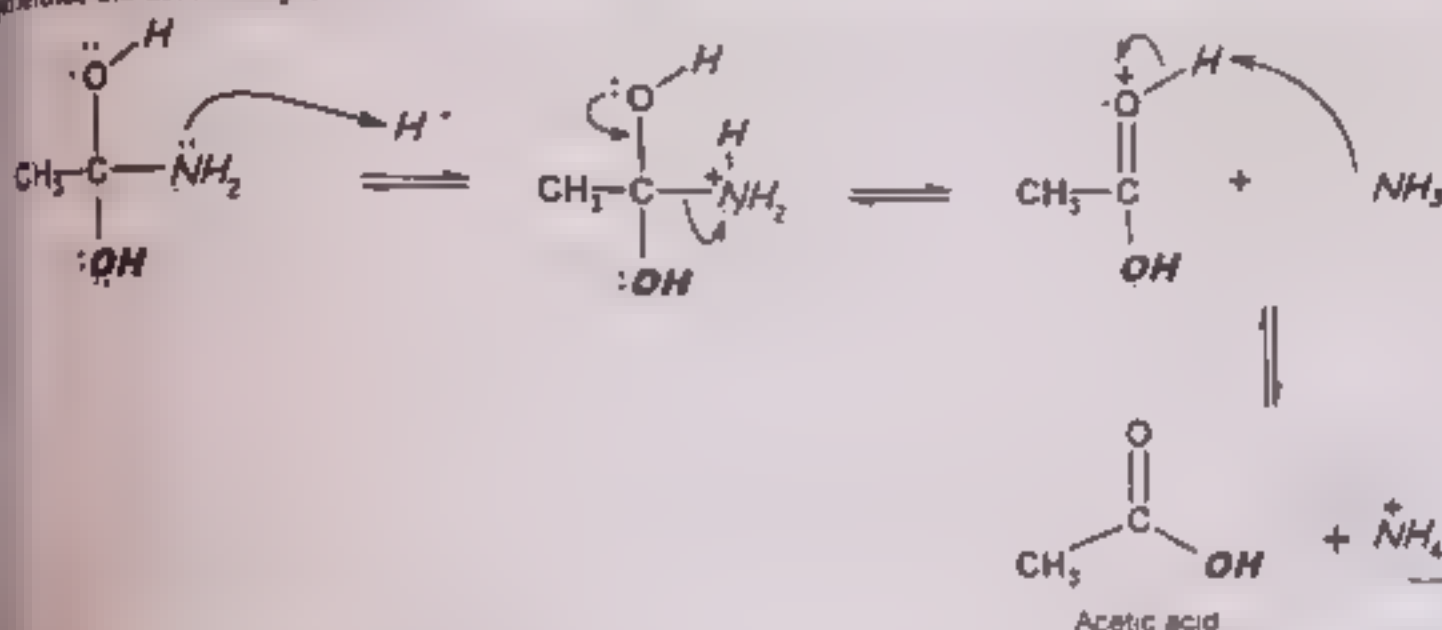
An acid/base reaction. Deprotonate the oxygen that came from the water molecule



Step 4: It is an acid/base reaction. The $-NH_2$ group is to be removed. However, it is a poor leaving group. So, it is converted into a good leaving group by protonation.

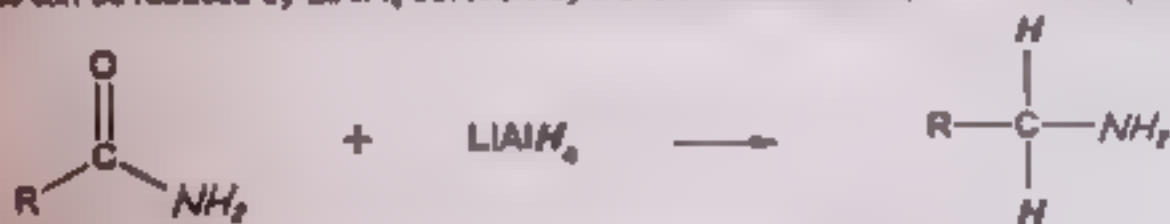
Step 5: The electrons of adjacent oxygen are used to help "push out" the leaving group as a neutral ammonia molecule. Thus, oxonium ion is produced.

Step 6: It is an acid/base reaction. Deprotonation of the oxonium ion forms the carboxylic acid product and regenerates the acid catalyst.



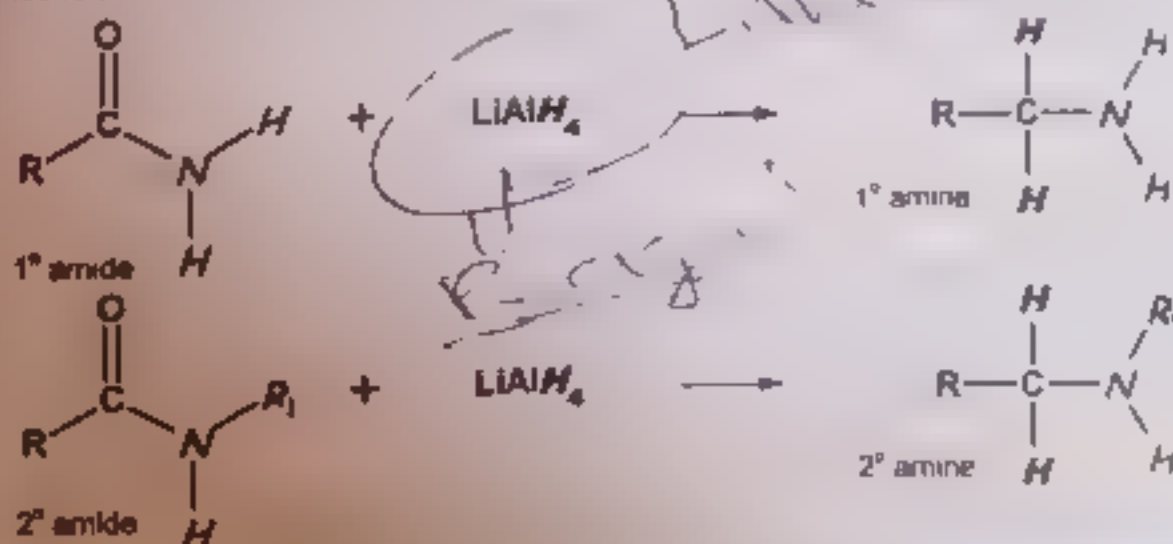
REDUCTION OF AMIDES

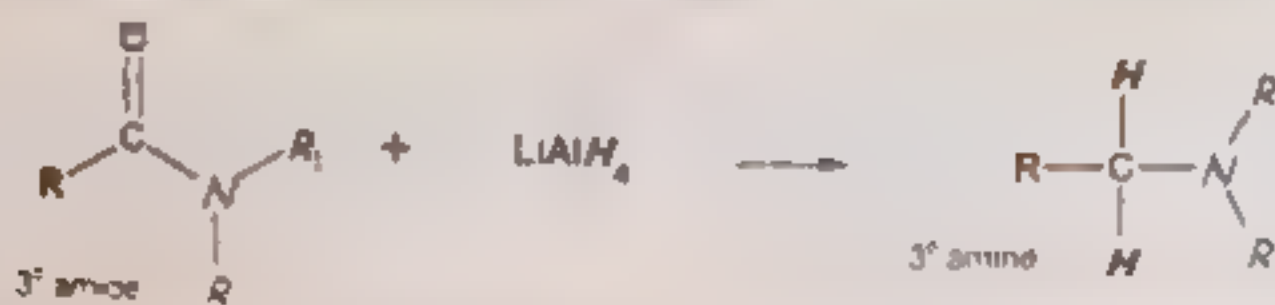
- Amides, $RCONR'_2$, can be reduced to the amine $RCH_2NR'_2$ by conversion of the $C=O$ to $-CH_2-$.
- Amides can be reduced by $LiAlH_4$ but NOT by the less reactive $NaBH_4$.



Typical reagents: $LiAlH_4$, ether solvent followed by aqueous work-up

- This reaction is different to that of other $C=O$ compounds which reduce to alcohols.
- The nature of the amine obtained depends on the substituents present on the original amide.
- The bonds to N substituents don't change.





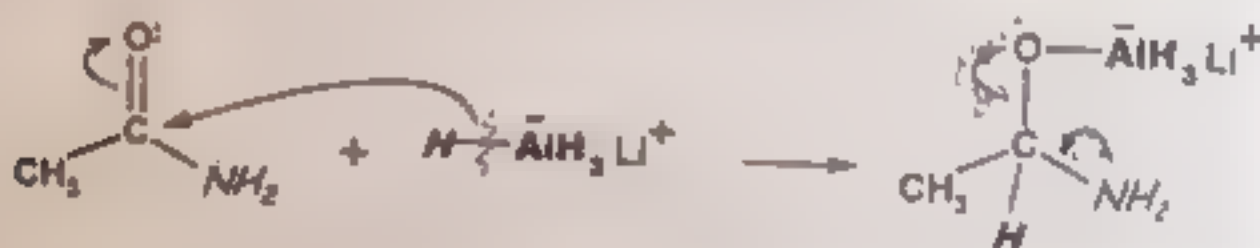
- R, R₁ or R₂ may be either alkyl or aryl substituents
- In the potential mechanism note that this is an α system that allows this to be a better leaving group than the less electronegative N systems

Exercise Q3 *ch1* How amides are reduced with LiAlH₄? Give mechanism

MECHANISM REDUCTION OF AMIDE WITH LiAlH₄

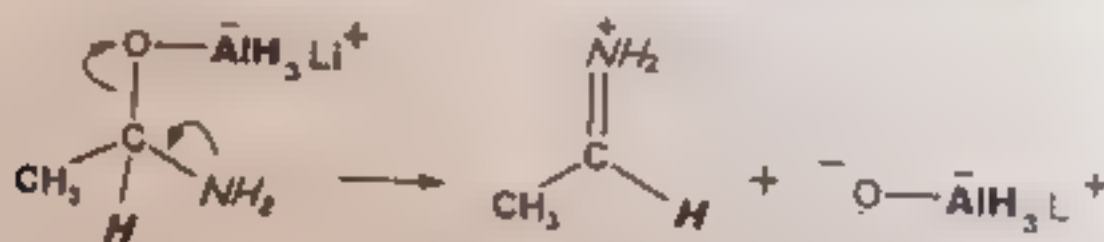
Step 1

- The nucleophilic H from the hydride reagent adds to the electrophilic C in the amide
- The electrons from the C=O move to the electronegative O creating a tetrahedral intermediate



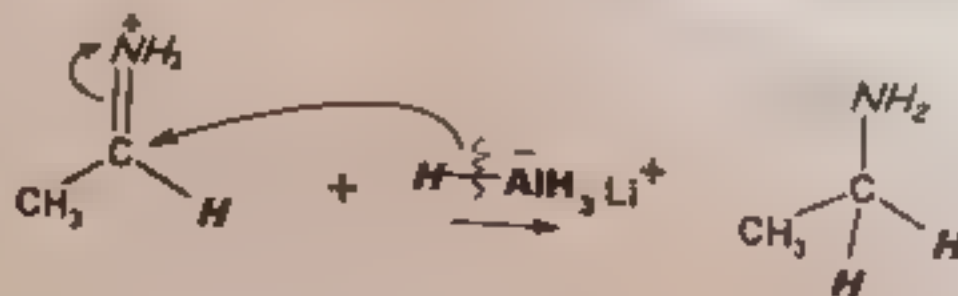
Step 2:

- The tetrahedral intermediate collapses and displaces the O as part of a metal alkoxide
- This produces a highly reactive iminium ion intermediate



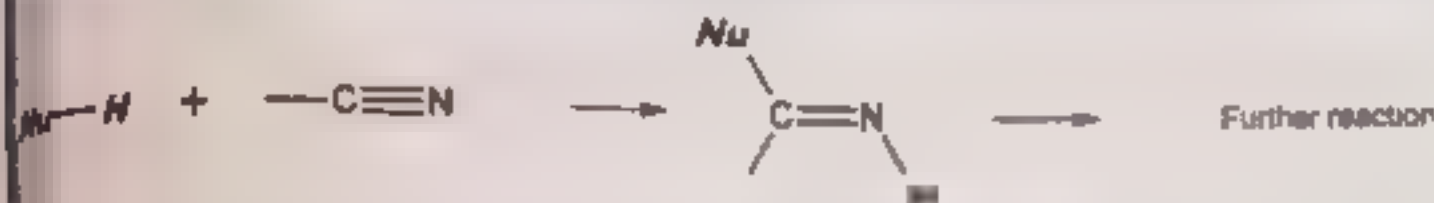
Step 3:

- The nucleophilic H from the hydride reagent adds to the electrophilic C in the iminium system
- The π-electrons from the C=N move to the cationic N to neutralize the charge. Thus amine is produced

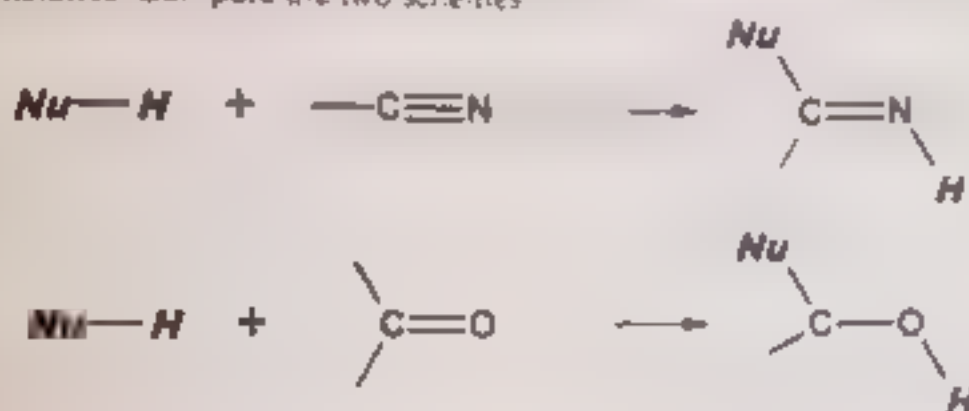


REACTIONS OF NITRILES

Nitriles typically undergo nucleophilic addition to give products that often undergo a further reaction



The chemistry of the nitrile functional group, $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$ is very similar to that of the carbonyl, $\text{C}=\text{O}$ of aldehydes and ketones. Compare the two schemes

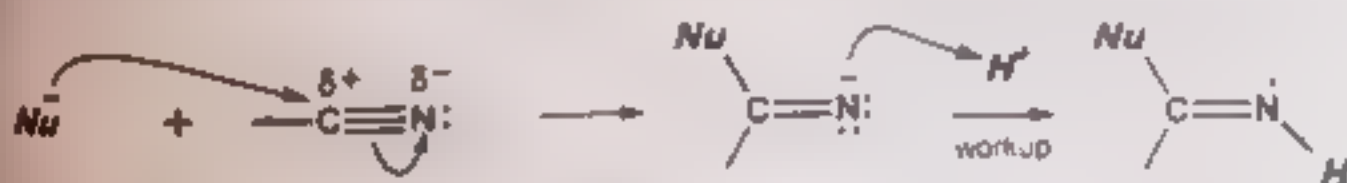


However, it is convenient to describe nitriles as carboxylic acid derivatives because:

- ✓ the oxidation state of the C is the same as that of the carboxylic acid derivatives
- ✓ hydrolysis produces the carboxylic acid

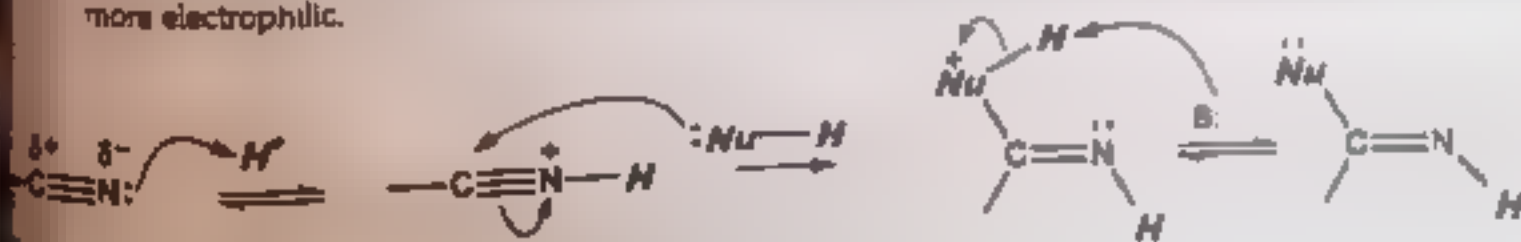
Like the carbonyl containing compounds, nitriles react with nucleophiles in two ways

(1) **Strong nucleophiles** (anionic) add directly to the $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$ to form an intermediate imine salt that protonates (and often reacts further) on work-up with dilute acid



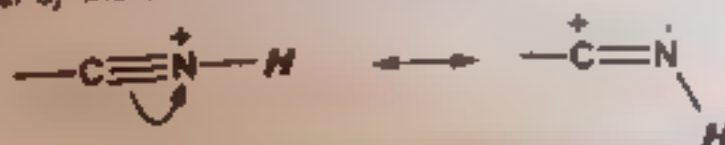
Examples of such nucleophilic systems are RMgX , RLi , $\text{RC}\equiv\text{CM}$, LiAlH_4

(2) **Weaker nucleophiles** (neutral) require that the $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$ be activated prior to attack of the Nu. This can be done using an acid catalyst which protonates on the Lewis basic N and makes the system more electrophilic.



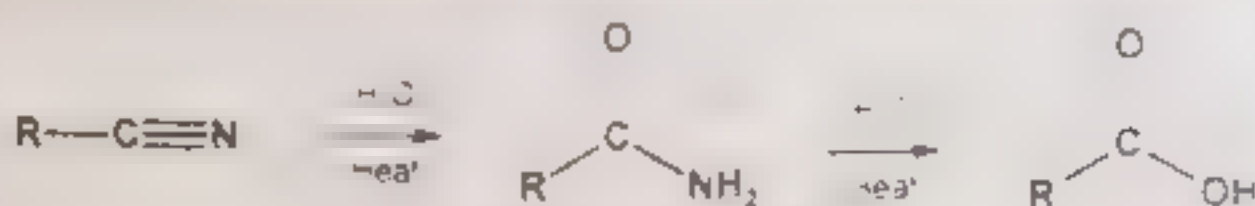
Examples of such nucleophilic systems are H_2O , ROH

The protonation of a nitrile gives a structure that can be redrawn in another resonance form that reveals the electrophilic character of the C since it is a carbocation.



HYDROLYSIS OF NITRILES

Nitriles $\text{RC}\equiv\text{N}$ can be hydrolyzed to carboxylic acids RCO_2H or amides RCONH_2 .



Reaction type: Nucleophilic Addition of water to a nitrile.

Reagents: Strong acid (e.g. H_2SO_4) or strong base (e.g. NaOH).

Exercise Q2 (iv): Give the mechanism for the acid catalyzed hydrolysis of a nitrile?

MECHANISM: ACID CATALYZED HYDROLYSIS OF NITRILES

Step 1:

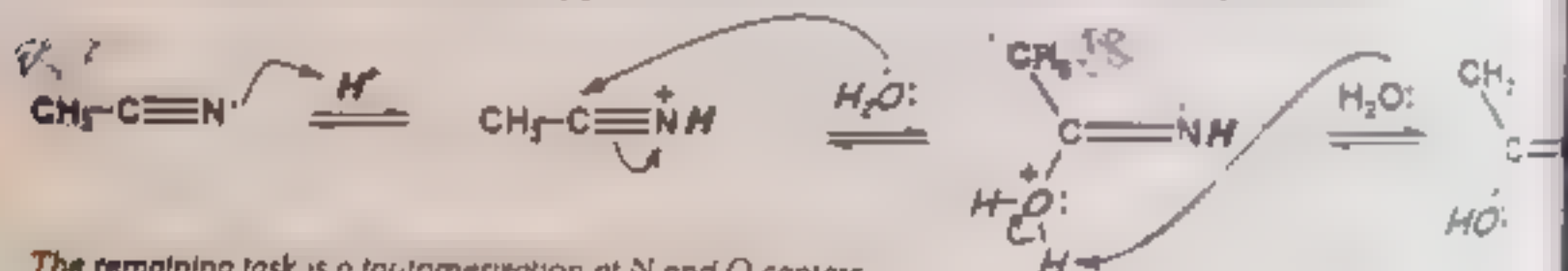
It is an acid/base reaction. Since water is a weak nucleophile, the nitrile must be activated by protonation. So, the nitrile becomes more electrophilic.

Step 2:

- The water O acts as the nucleophile and attacks the electrophilic C in the $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}^+$.
- The electrons are moved towards the positive center.

Step 3:

It is an acid/base reaction. The oxygen that came from the water molecule is deprotonated.



The remaining task is a tautomerization at N and O centers.

Step 4:

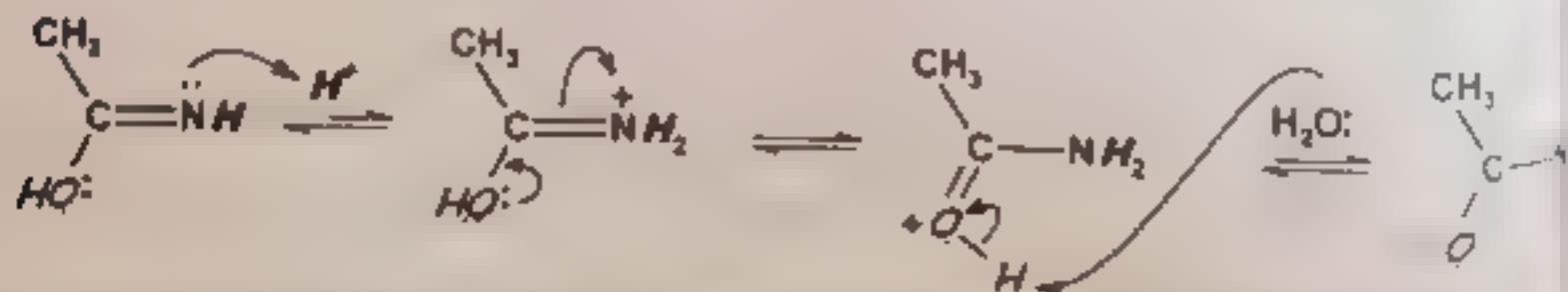
It is an acid/base reaction. The N atom is protonated to give the NH_2 group.

Step 5:

The electrons of an adjacent O are used to neutralise the positive charge at the N atom and form a C=O. Thus, an oxonium is produced.

Step 6:

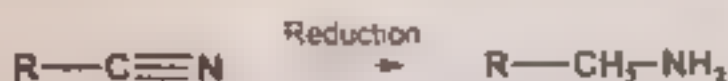
It is an acid/base reaction. The deprotonation of oxonium ion produces the amide intermediate.



The amide intermediate is half-way to the formation of acid. The hydrolysis of amide occurs in the same way as described above in the "hydrolysis of amides".

REDUCTION OF NITRILES

- The nitrile, $RC\equiv N$ gives the 1° amine by conversion of the $C\equiv N$ to $-CH_2-NH_2$

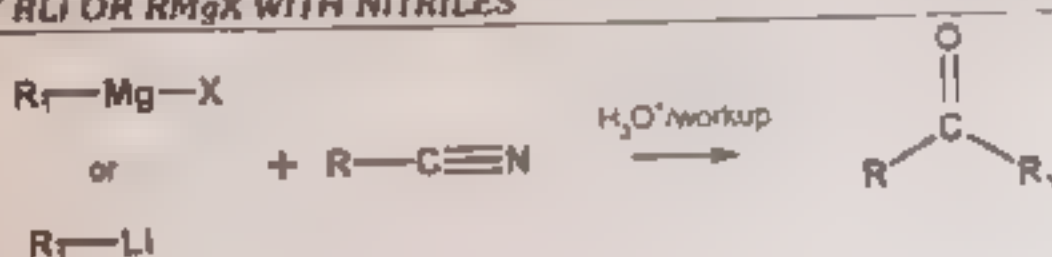


- Reactions usually in Et_2O or THF followed by H_3O^+ work-up

Reaction type: Nucleophilic Addition

- Nitriles can be reduced by $LiAlH_4$ but NOT the less reactive $NaBH_4$
- Typical reagents: $LiAlH_4$ ether solvent followed by aqueous work up
- Catalytic hydrogenation (H_2 catalyst) can also be used giving the same products
- R may be either alkyl or aryl substituents

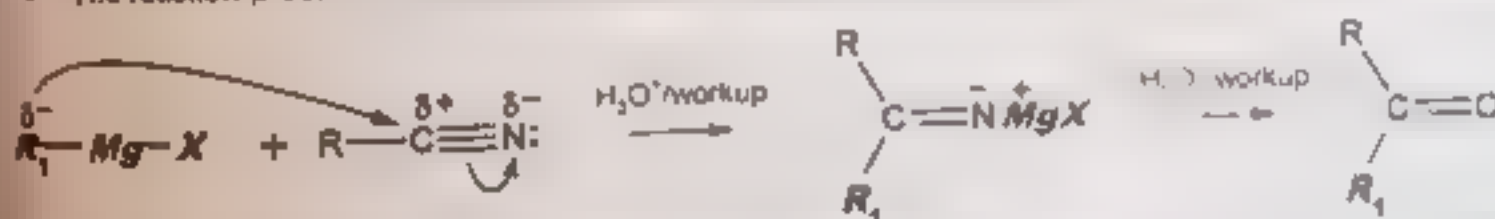
REACTIONS OF RLi OR $RMgX$ WITH NITRILES



Reaction usually occurs in Et_2O (Diethyl ether) or THF

Reaction type: Nucleophilic Acyl Substitution then Nucleophilic Addition

- Nitriles, $RC\equiv N$, react with Grignard reagents or organolithium reagents to give ketones
- The strongly nucleophilic organometallic reagents add to the $C\equiv N$ bond in a similar fashion to that seen for aldehydes and ketones
- The reaction proceeds via an imine salt intermediate that is then hydrolyzed to give the ketone product



- Since the ketone is not formed until after the addition of water, the organometallic reagent does not have the opportunity to react with the ketone product
- Nitriles are less reactive than aldehydes and ketones

MECHANISM: REACTION OF $RMgX$ WITH AN NITRILE

Step 1:

- The nucleophilic C in the organometallic reagent adds to the electrophilic C in the polar nitrile group
- The electrons from the $C\equiv N$ move to the electronegative N forming a carbanion intermediate

Step 2:

- It is an acid/base reaction
- On addition of aqueous acid the intermediate salt protonates giving the imine

Step 3:

- It is an acid/base reaction
- The imine is first activated by protonation, acid catalysis

Step 4:

- The nucleophilic O of a water molecule attacks the electrophilic C.
- The π electrons from the C=N move to the nitrogen to neutralize the charge.

Step 5:

- It is an acid/base reaction.
- The O atom from the water molecule is deprotonated to form the phenoxide base.

Step 6:

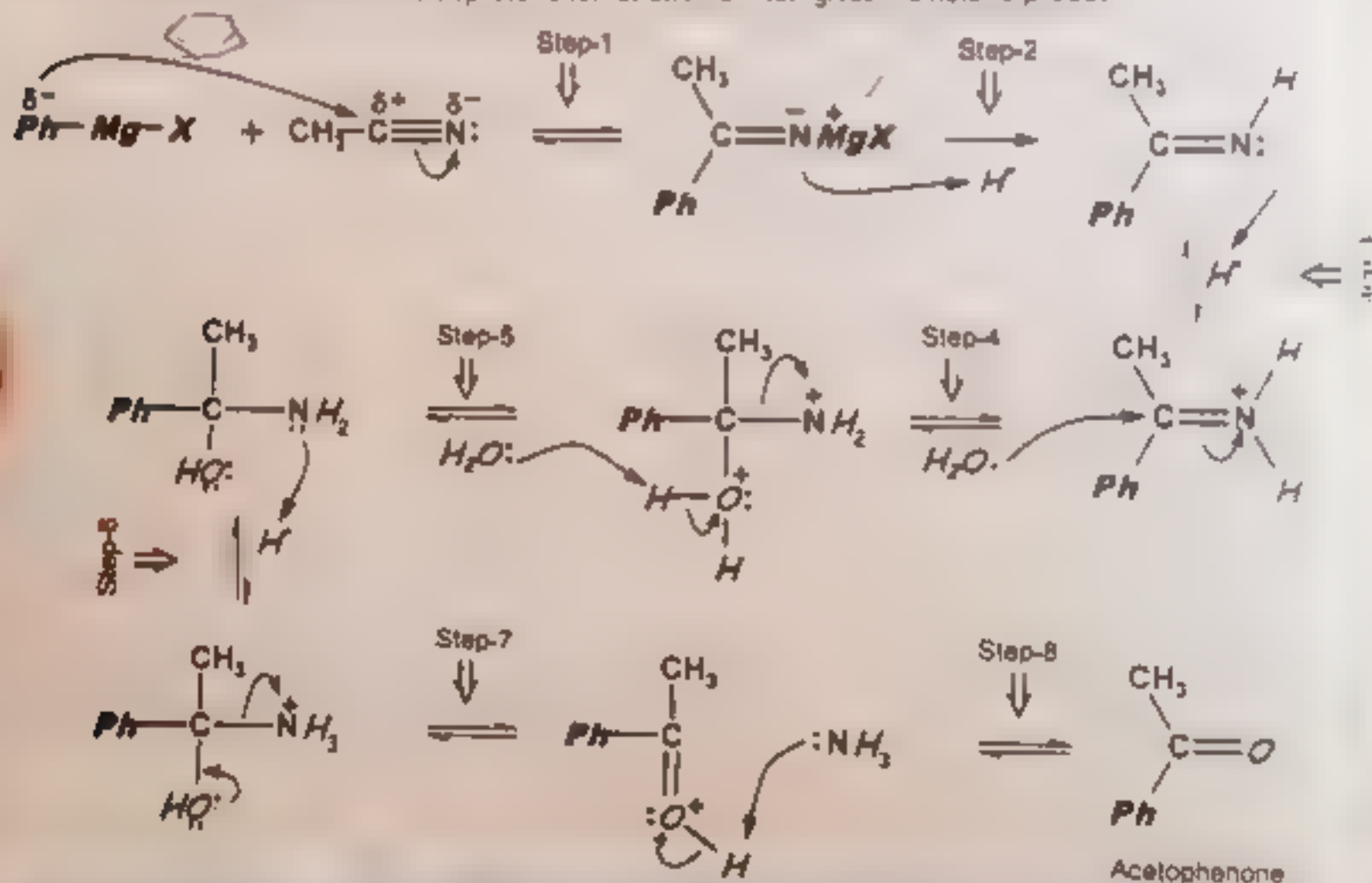
It is an acid/base reaction. The N system is converted into a better leaving group, protonated.

Step 7:

The electrons on the adjacent O are used to push out the N leaving group as a neutral molecule, ammonia. An oxonium ion is produced.

Step 8:

It is an acid/base reaction. The deprotonation of oxonium ion gives the ketone product.

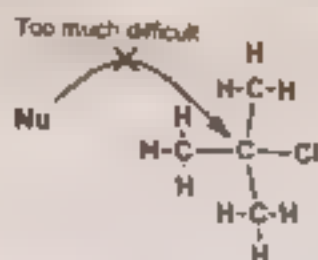


QUICK QUIZ

(1) Define Steric effect?

The effect of the three-dimensional configuration of reacting substances on the rate, nature, and extent of reaction is called steric effect.

e.g. The steric effect of three methyl groups in ter-butyl chloride causes hindrance to the approach of nucleophile on tertiary carbon. Therefore, tertiary butyl chloride does not give $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ reaction. Instead it gives $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ reaction. This hindrance is called steric hindrance.



(3) What is alcohol's reactivity order?

- Alcohol reacts with other reagents due to the breaking of C-O and O-H bonds
- If a nucleophile attacks, the C-O bond breaks. The order of reactivity of alcohols with respect to cleavage of C-O bond is

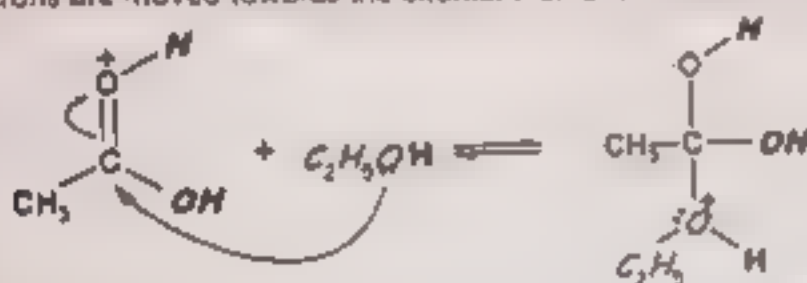
Tertiary alcohol > Secondary alcohol > Primary alcohol

- If an electrophile attacks the O-H bond breaks. The order of reactivity of alcohol with respect to O-H bond cleavage

$\text{CH}_3\text{OH} > \text{Tertiary alcohol} > \text{Secondary alcohol} > \text{Primary alcohol}$

(3) How oxonium ion creates the tetrahedral intermediate

- The O-atom of alcohol functions as the nucleophile and attacks the electrophilic C in protonated carbonyl compound.
- The electrons are moved towards the oxonium ion and a tetrahedral intermediate is formed



(4) Define tautomerisation?

The process of conversion of one tautomer into the other is called tautomerization

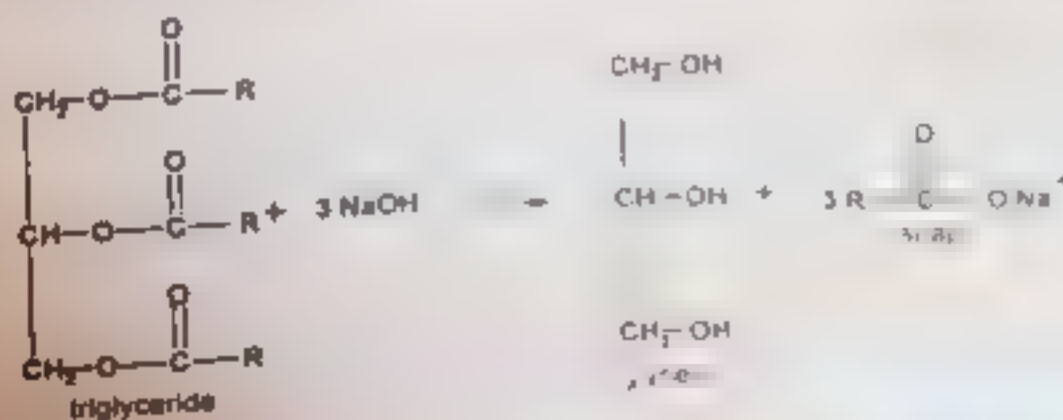


(5) Define saponification?

The hydrolysis of fats with alkalis to produce soap is called saponification reaction

In this reaction sodium or potassium salt of fatty acids are produced. These salts are called soaps

Glycerol is also produced as a by-product



DO YOU KNOW?

1) The

2) The

3) The

4) The

5) The

6) The

7) The

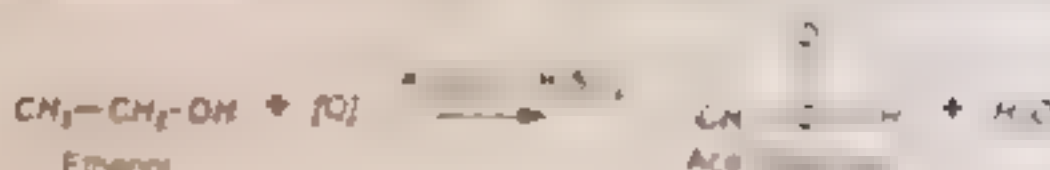
8) The

9) The

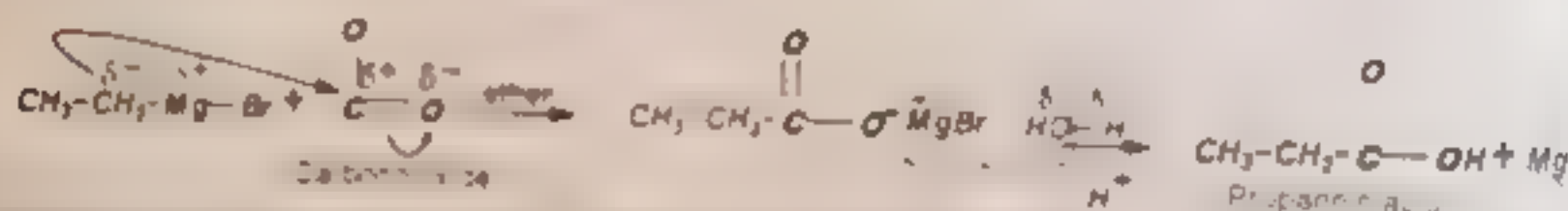
10) The

SOME IMPORTANT CONVERSIONS

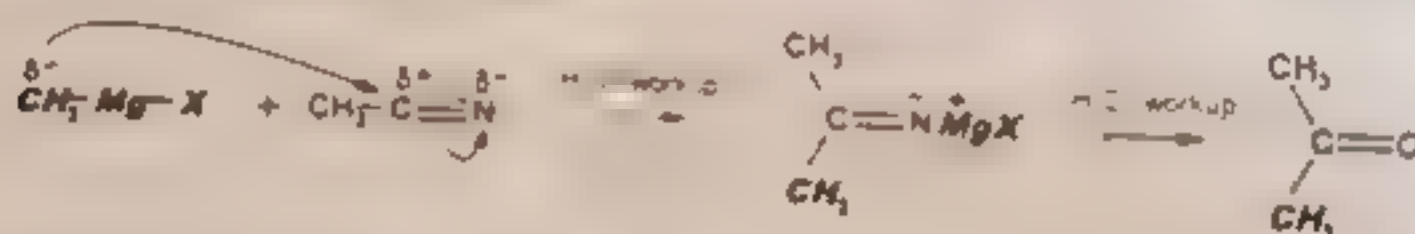
(i) Ethanol to ethanoic acid



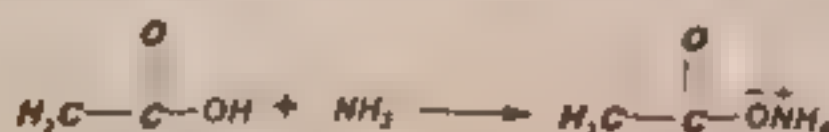
(ii) Ethyl bromide to propanoic acid



(iii) Ethyl magnesium bromide to acetone



(iv) Acetic acid to Acetamide



SOCIETY, TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE

CARBOXYLIC ACIDS OCCURANCE.

- Sorbic acid
- Caprylic acid is present in coconut
- Lauric acid is also present in coconut
- Myristic acid is present in nutmeg
- Arachidic acid is present in peanut oil
- Citric acid is present in citrus fruits e.g. lemon, limes, grapes, oranges
- Tartaric acid is present in tamarind
- Lactic acid is present in apples, tomatoes and in muscles
- Acetic acid is present in grapes
- Malic acid is present in green apples and plums
- Benzoic acid is found in berries
- Butyric acid is present in rancid butter
- Caproic acid is present in goat fat
- Caprylic acid is present in milk
- Palmitic acid is present in palm oil
- Stearic acid is present in waxes, animal fats and oils
- Amino acids are the building blocks of proteins
- Acetoacetic acid and pyruvic acid are the acids of biochemical significance
- Lactic acid is found in sour milk
- Tartaric acid is found in wine
- Acetic acid is found in vinegar

CARBOXYLIC ACIDS AS FOOD PRESERVATIVES

Formic acid is used as preservative forilage including fresh hay and other livestock feed

Boric acid was used as a food preservative in cayenne (a product made from salt-cured fish, eggs) but its use has been banned now

Salicylic acid its use has been banned now

Benzoic acid is used as a preservative in jams, beer, preserved fruit, pickles, fruit juice, desert sauces and syrups

Acetic acid is used as a preservative in fish, eggs, butter, margarine, processed cheese, dairy powder, cooking oil

Lactic acid is used as a preservative in beer, canned foods especially vegetables and fruits, fresh fruit and vegetables

Propionic acid is used as a preservative in dairy products, particularly in cheese and in baking products

TASTE OF DIFFERENT CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

- Esters are derived from ~~carboxylic acids~~ the reaction of carboxylic acids and alcohols in the presence of hydrochloric acid or sulfuric acid, a process called esterification
- Ester flavors are a range of fruity, sugary, and sweet-tasting compounds that are present in many types as a normal part of their brewing process.
- Examples of ester flavors are

Ethyl formate gives raspberries their characteristic taste

Ethyl acetate has a bittersweet, wine-like burning taste

Isobutyl acetate has a taste reminiscent of pears or bananas

Ethyl propionate has rum like taste (Rum is distilled alcoholic beverage made from sugarcane byproducts)

Ethyl butyrate -found in pineapples- tastes like sugar water

Ethyl valerate has apple like taste

Ethyl hexanoate is an apple flavoured ester

Ethyl heptanoate has wine-like odour

Ethyl octanoate found in pineapples has sweet taste

KEY POINTS

- Carboxylic acids are represented as $\text{R}-\text{COOH}$.
- The CO_2H unit is para-ortho-ortho-para in the structure of the molecule. One pair of the hydroxyl groups is attached to the para position.
- The most important reactions of carboxylic acids and their derivatives such as acyl halides, esters and amides are discussed.
- Esters can also be made from carboxylic acids, especially acyl halides and anhydrides, by reacting them with alcohols in the presence of a weak base.
- Loss of carbon dioxide is called decarboxylation.
- Simple carboxylic acids rarely undergo decarboxylation.
- Esters are less reactive towards Nu than aldehydes or ketones.
- Carboxylic esters R_1COOR_2 react with 2 equivalents of organolithium or Grignard reagents to give tertiary alcohols.
- Amides hydrolyze to the parent carboxylic acid and the appropriate amine.
- Amides can be reduced by LiAlH_4 but NOT the less reactive NaBH_4 .
- The chemistry of the nitrile functional group $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$ is very similar to that of the carbonyl $\text{C}=\text{O}$ of aldehydes and ketones.
- Nitriles $\text{RC}\equiv\text{N}$ react with Grignard reagents or organolithium reagents to give ketones.

EXERCISE

Q1 Select the right answer from the choices given with each question

- (i) A carboxyl acid contains functional group.
 - a A Hydroxyl group
 - b A Hydroxyl and Carbonyl group
 - c A Hydroxyl and Carbonyl group
 - d A Hydroxyl and Carbonyl group
- (ii) From the following carboxylic acids which acid has higher acidity
 - a Ethanoic acid
 - b Propanoic acid
 - c Butanoic acid
 - d Pentanoic acid
- (iii) Which reagent is used to reduce a carboxylic acid?
 - a H_2/Ni
 - b H_2/Pt
 - c NaBH_4
 - d LiAlH_4
- (iv) Stronger acid is
 - a CH_3COOH
 - b HCOOH
 - c $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$
 - d $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$
- (v) Acetamide is prepared by:
 - a Heating ammonium acetate
 - b Heating methyl cyanide
 - c Heating ethyl acetate
 - d The hydrolysis of methyl cyanide
- (vi) Carboxylic acids react with metal to form salts with the evolution of
 - a CO_2
 - b H_2
 - c CO
 - d CH_4
- (vii) Ethane-1,2-dioic acid is also called:
 - a Benzoic acid
 - b Oxalic acid
 - c Formic acid
 - d Malic acid
- (viii) Carboxylic acid can be prepared by the action of Grignard's reagent with
 - a O_3
 - b CO_2
 - c CO
 - d CH_4
- (ix) The IUPAC name for formic acid is
 - a Methanoic acid
 - b Acetic acid
 - c Ethanoic acid
 - d Oxalic acid
- (x) The reaction of alcohol with acetic acid is known as
 - a saponification
 - b esterification
 - c oxidation
 - d reduction
- (xi) Esters are formed by the reaction of carboxylic acids with
 - a alcohols
 - b ethers
 - c aldehydes
 - d alkyl halides
- (xii) Which one of the following has both hydroxyl and carboxylic acid groups?
 - a phenol
 - b picric acid
 - c phthalic acid
 - d salicylic acid
- (xiii) Which of the following cannot be prepared directly from acetic acid
 - a acetamide
 - b acetic anhydride
 - c acetic acid
 - d acetic acid
- (xiv) Reaction between caustic soda and a fat is called
 - a esterification
 - b hydrogenation
 - c neutralization
 - d saponification
- (xv) When a carboxylic acid reacts with alcohol it produces a new class of compounds
 - a ethers
 - b esters
 - c aldehydes
 - d ketones

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

(i) Ans: (b) A Carboxyl group

A carboxylic acid contains a carboxyl group

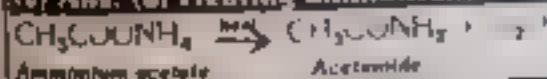
(ii) Ans: (b) Nitroethanoic acid

(iii) Ans: (d) LiAlH_4

LiAlH_4 reduces carboxylic acids to alcohols

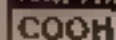
(iv) Ans: (b) HCOOH

(v) Ans: (a) Heating ammonium acetate



(vi) Ans: (a) CO_2

(vii) Ans: (b) Oxalic acid



COOH (Ethanedioic acid or Oxalic acid)

(viii) Ans: (b) CO_2

(ix) Ans: (a) Methanoic acid

Since Formic acid (HCOOH) contains methanoic acid

(x) Ans: (b) esterification

(xi) Ans: (a) alcohols

The reaction of carboxylic acid with alcohol
This reaction is called esterification reaction

(xii) Ans: (d) Salicylic acid

(xiii) Ans: (a) acetamide

Since reaction of acetic acid with ammonia first
ammonium acetate. It is then heated to give acetamide

See also MCQ no. 16

(xiv) Ans: (d) saponification

Also see CH#21 Biochemistry for the reaction

(xv) Ans: (b) esters

The reaction of carboxylic acid with alcohol produces esters
This reaction is called esterification reaction

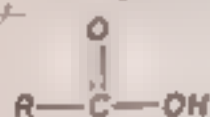
Q2: Write short answers

(i) What are aliphatic and aromatic carboxylic acids?

Carboxylic acids are generally of two types

Aliphatic carboxylic acids and aromatic carboxylic acids

The general formula of aliphatic carboxylic acid is



where R = H or an alkyl group

The general formula of aromatic carboxylic acid is



where Ar = phenyl or aryl group

(ii) Give probable mechanism of alkaline hydrolysis of an ester

Step 1:

The hydroxide nucleophile attacks at the electrophilic Carbon of the ester $\text{C}=\text{O}$ breaking the π bond and creating the tetrahedral intermediate

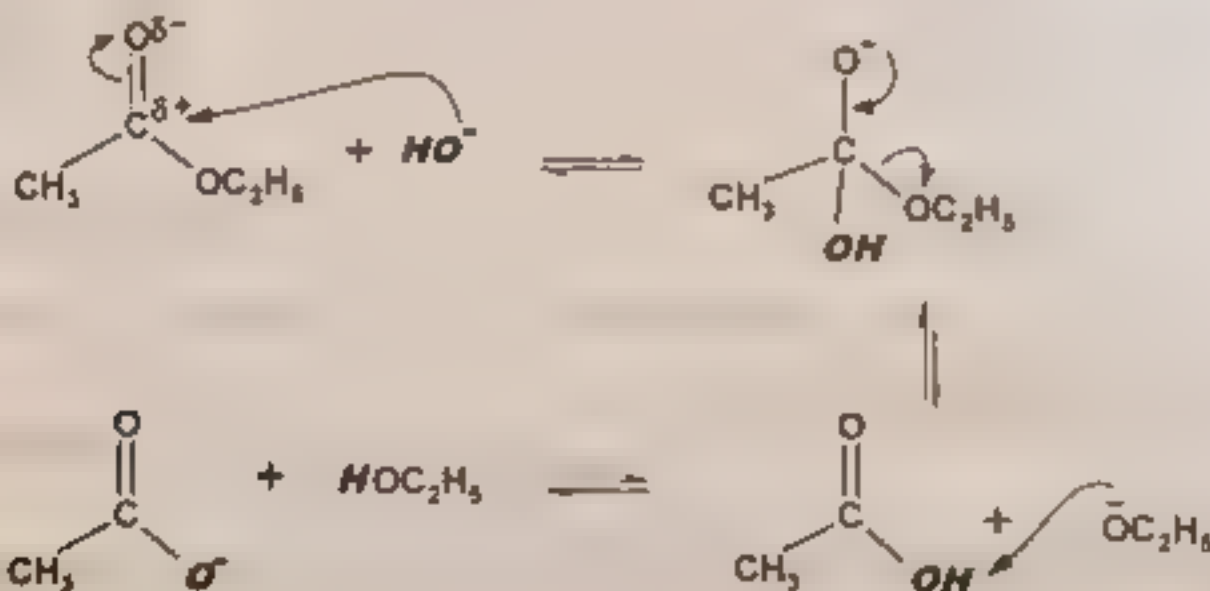
Step 2:

The intermediate collapses, reforming the $\text{C}=\text{O}$

results in the loss of the leaving group the alkoxide RO^- leading to the carboxylic acid

Step 3:

An acid-base reaction. A very rapid equilibrium where the alkoxide RO^- functions as a base deprotonating the carboxylic acid



acid RCO_2H , an acidic work up would allow the carboxylic acid to be obtained from the reaction

A carboxylic acid does not form phenyl hydrazone when treated with phenyl hydrazine. Explain.

Carboxylic acid has an OH group. This group accepts proton from carboxylic acid with the help of the lone pair on the oxygen atom. Since lone pair has been used, moreover, the carbonyl group is not available for nucleophilic attack as nucleophile on carbonyl carbon. Thus hydrazone is not formed.

Give the mechanism for the acid catalyzed hydrolysis of a nitrile?

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Why acetic acid is often called Glacial acetic acid?

Pure acetic acid freezes at 16.6°C . Therefore it is called glacial acetic acid.

What is use of esters?

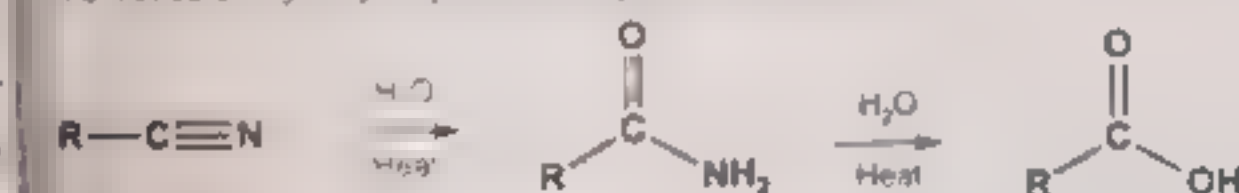
Esters have fruity smell. Thus they are used as artificial flavours.

Flavours of some esters are given below.

Ester	Flavour	Ester	Flavour
Amyl acetate	Banana	Isobutyl formate	Raspberry
Benzyl acetate	Jasmine	Ethyl butyrate	Pineapple
Amyl butyrate	Apricot	Octyl acetate	Orange

How may nitriles be converted into carboxylic acid?

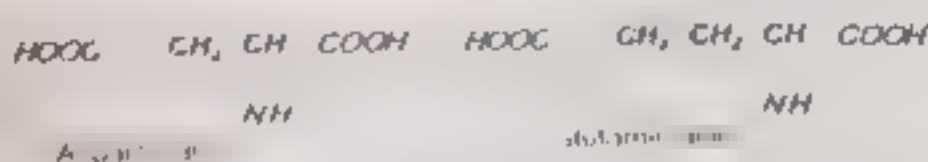
The nitriles on hydrolysis yield carboxylic acids via amides.



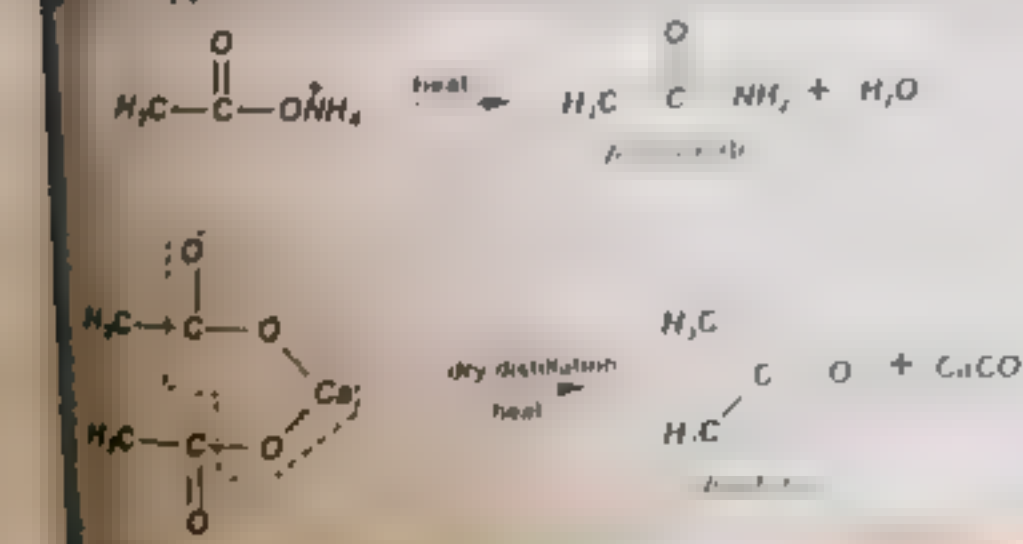
What are acidic amino acids give example?

Amino acids containing more than one acidic group than amino group are called acidic amino acids.

Example:

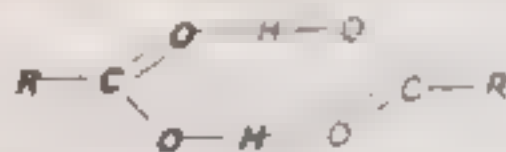


What happened when ammonium acetate and calcium acetate is heated?



* How does carboxylic acid exist in nonpolar solvent?

The carboxylic acids exist as dimers in non polar solvent like benzene. Thus it appears to be twice of their actual mass.

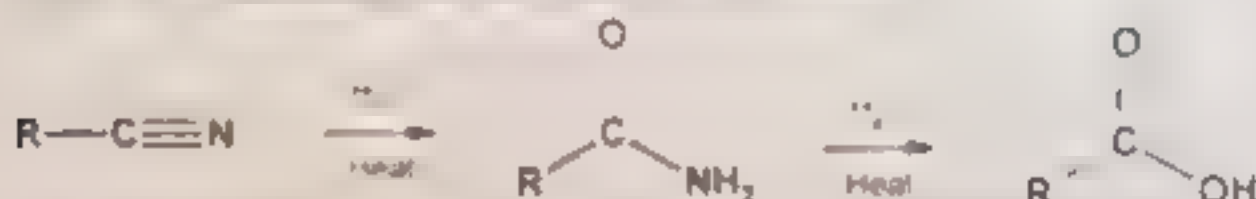


(Q.3) Give detailed answers for the following questions.

(i) How will you prepare carboxylic acids from?

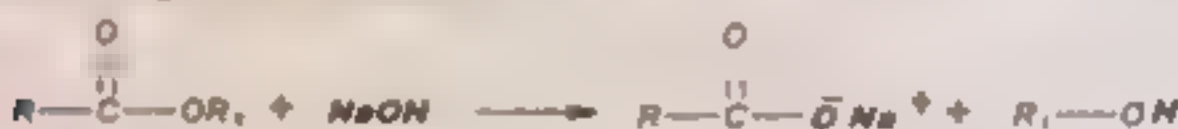
(a) alkyl nitrile

The nitriles can be converted to carboxylic acids by the following reaction:



(b) Hydrolysis of esters

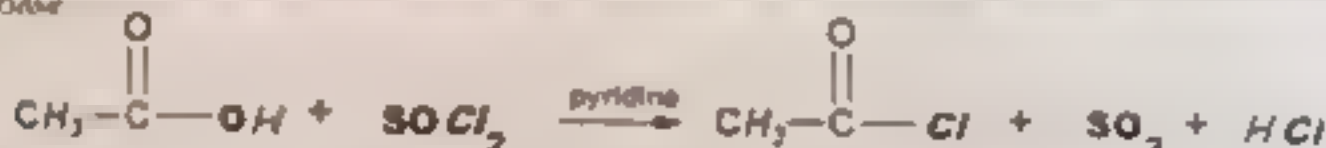
The ester on heating with aqueous acid or alkali gives water and acid or the acid which on treatment with dilute HCl gives free carboxylic acid.



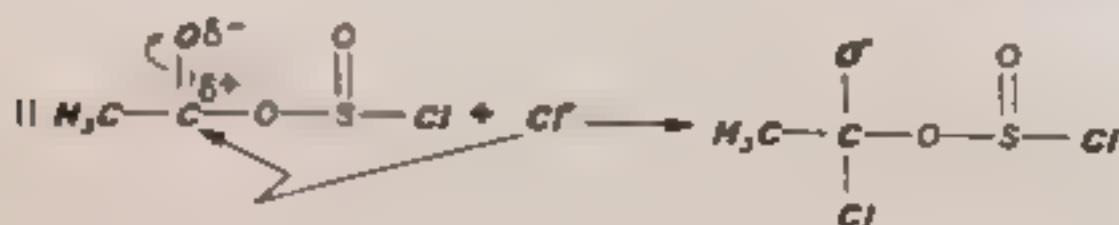
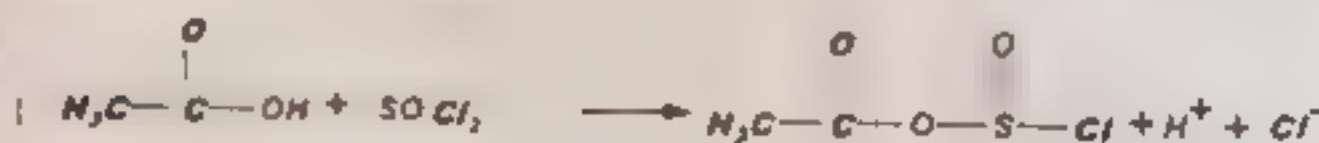
(ii) Give the reaction of acetic acid with the following along mechanism

(a) SOCl_2

Acyl chlorides are prepared by treating the carboxylic acid with SOCl_2 in the presence of a base.



Mechanism



(b) Ethanol



Step 1:

An acid/base reaction. Protonation of the carbonyl oxygen.



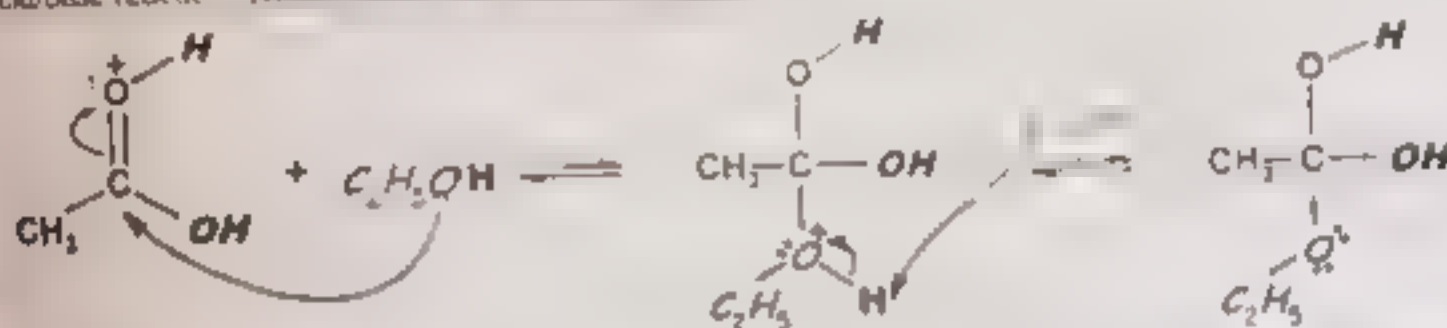
Step 2:

The alcohol O functions as the nucleophile attacks towards the oxonium ion, creating the tetrahedral int.

C=O with the electrons moving

Step 3:

An acid/base reaction.



Step 4:

An acid/base reaction. Need to make a leaving group by protonation.

a good leaving

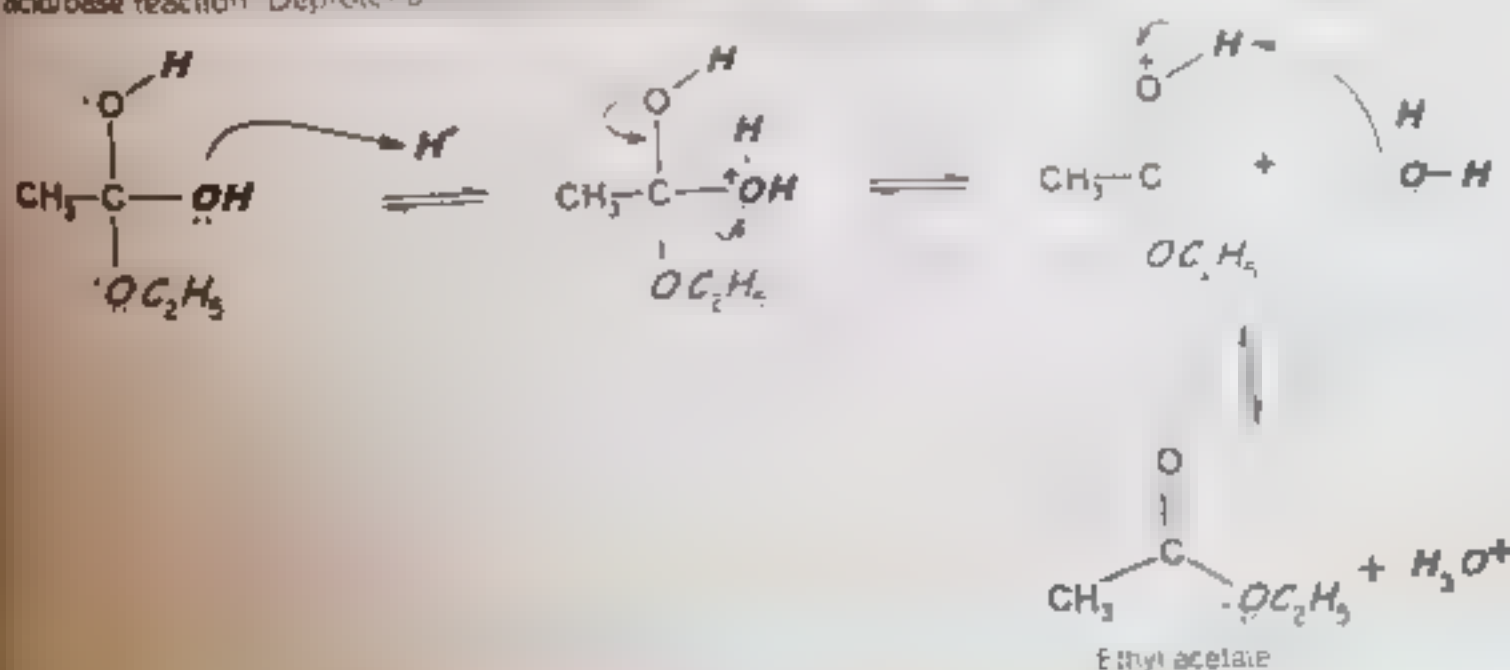
Step 5:

Use the electrons of an adjacent oxygen to help 'push out' the leaving

water molecule

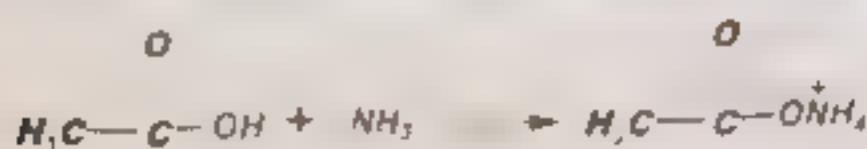
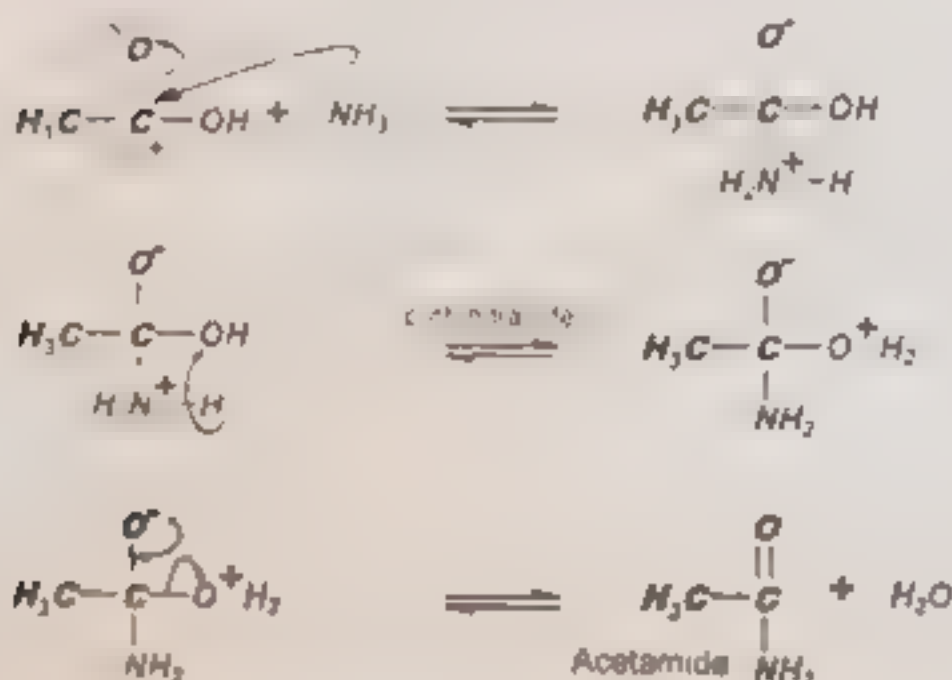
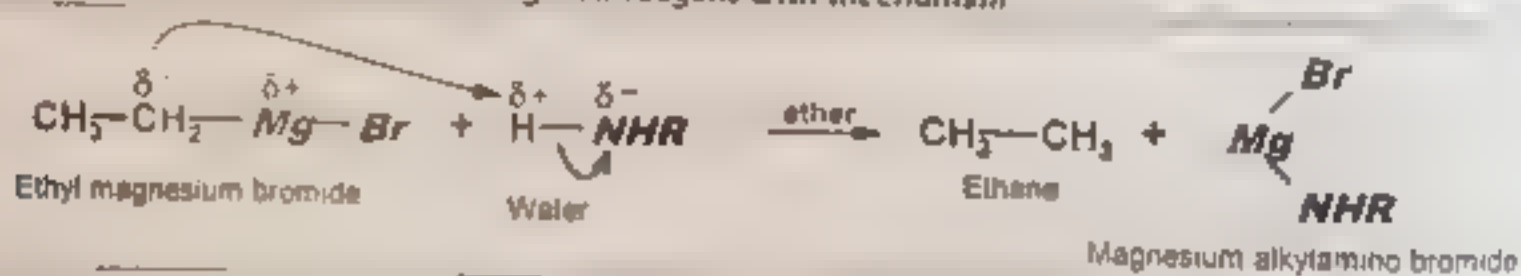
Step 6:

An acid/base reaction. Deprotonation of the ester in the ester product

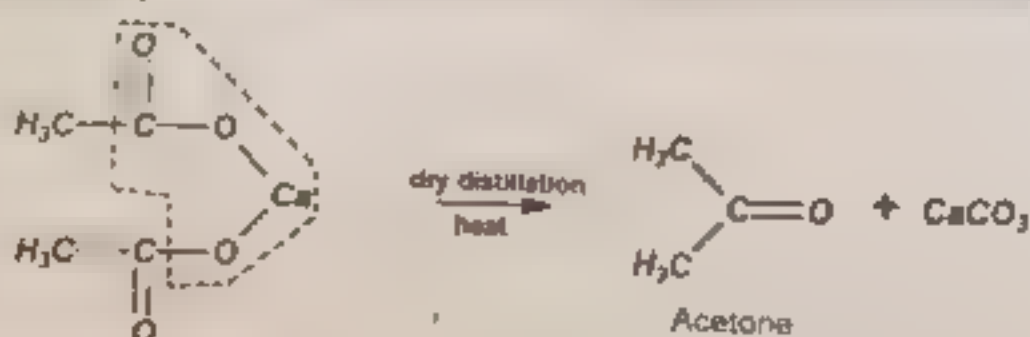


(c) NH_3

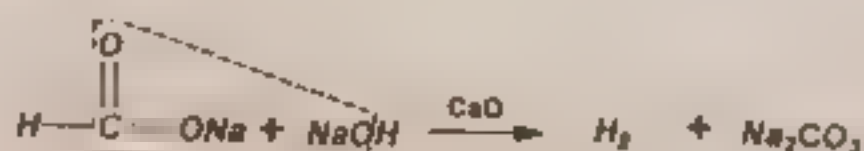
Carboxylic acids react with ammonia to form ammonium salts which on heating produce acid amides

Mechanism.(iii) Give the reaction of amine with Grignard reagent with mechanism(iv) What happens when following compounds are heated:

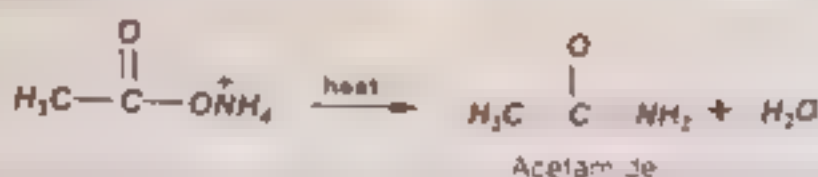
(i) Calcium acetate



(ii) Sodium formate and soda lime

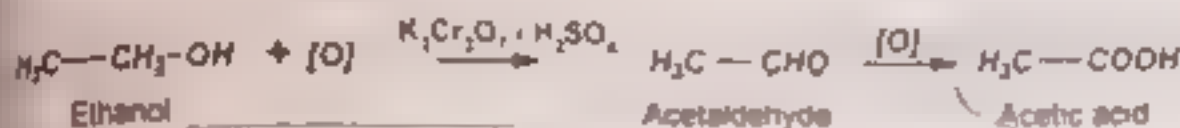


(iii) Ammonium acetate



What is vinegar? Describe how is vinegar prepared from ethanol

The dilute aqueous solution of acetic acid is known as vinegar. Acetic acid can be prepared by the oxidation of ethanol.

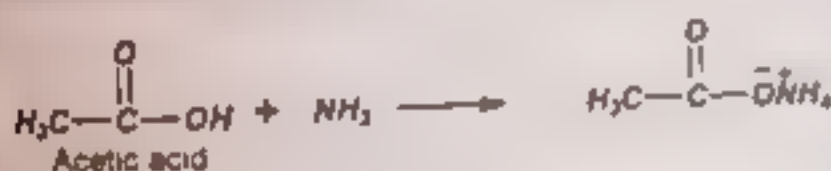


In industry, acetic acid is also prepared by the fermentation of ethyl alcohol by the help of acetic acid bacteria.

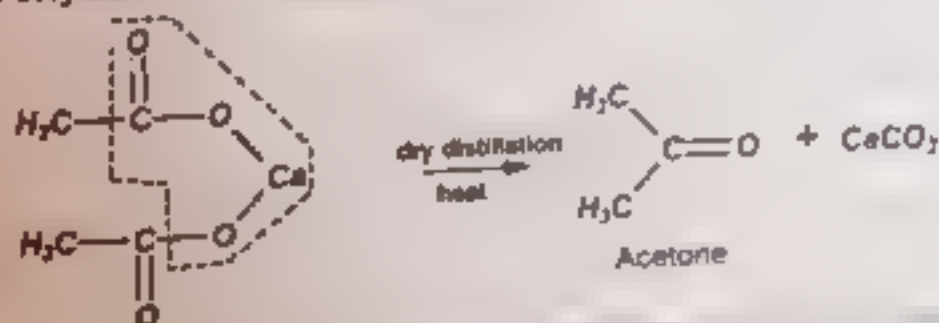
(iv) Write down the mechanism of the following reactions

1. Between acetic acid and ethanol
Page 381
2. Between acetic acid ammonia
Page 382
3. Between acetic acid and thionyl chloride
Page 380

(v) How would convert the following?
Acetic acid into acetamide



Acetic acid into acetone



(vi) How amides are reduced with LiAlH_4 ? Give mechanism.

Page 368

(ix) What is Friedel & Craft's reaction? Explain their mechanism.

Page 196-197

(x) Give mechanism for reaction for acid catalyzed esterification.

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TEST YOUR SKILLS

Marks: 66

Time: 20 Minutes

OBJECTIVE

Marks: 17

Note: Circle the correct option using lead pencil and result in lines of marks

Q1 Circle the correct option i.e. A B C D Each part carries one mark

- (i) Vinegar is
A. 4-5 % acetic acid B. Glacial acetic acid C. Pure acetic acid D. Any one of these
- (ii) Which of the following is not a fatty acid?
A. Phthalic acid B. Benzoic acid C. Phenyl acetic acid D. All of above
- (iii) In Fischer esterification, the reactivity order of alcohols is
A. $\text{CH}_3\text{OH} > 1^\circ > 2^\circ > 3^\circ$ B. $1^\circ > 2^\circ > 3^\circ > \text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ C. $3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ > \text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ D. H_2O
- (iv) Acetic acid at low temperature freezes and called
A. 90% acetic acid B. Glacial acetic acid C. Semi solid acetic acid D. None of above
- (v) Which one of the following acids is used for the preparation of synthetic rubber
A. Carbonic acid B. Formic acid C. Acetic acid D. Butyric acid
- (vi) 2-Hydroxy propanoic acid is called
A. Oxalic acid B. Lactic acid C. Citric acid D. Aspartic acid
- (vii) Carboxylic acid on reduction with HI and red phosphorous gives
A. Alkanes B. Alkenes C. Alkynes D. Alcohols
- (viii) The carbonyl of Grignard's reagent is used to prepare
A. acid halides B. amides C. carboxylic acids D. esters
- (ix) Which of the following do not contain SO_2OH group
A. Picric acid B. p-toluene sulphonic acid C. Both D. None
- (x) An acid chloride compared with its acid boils at
A. Low temperature B. Higher temperature C. Similar temperature D. An indefinite temperature
- (xi) Reaction between caustic soda and a fat is called
a. esterification (b) hydrogenation (c) neutralization (d) saponification
A. Acidic amino acid B. Basic amino acid C. Neutral amino acid D. All of above
- (xii) The reduction of nitriles gives
A. alcohols B. amines C. ester D. None
- (xiii) Which is the strongest acid
A. Cl_3CCOOH B. HCOOH C. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{COOH}$ D. CH_3COOH
- (xiv) The reduction of esters with LiAlH_4 gives
A. Amino acids B. amide C. alcohol D. alkane
- (xv) Which of the following derivative of carboxylic acids is the most reactive?
A. acid halides B. amides C. anhydrides D. esters
- (xvi) Catalyst used for preparation of anhydride is
A. $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ B. H_2SO_4 C. P_2O_5 D. V_2O_5
- (xvii) The odour of esters is
A. Pungent B. Suffocating C. Pleasant D. Fruity

SUBJECTIVE

Time: 2.35 Hours

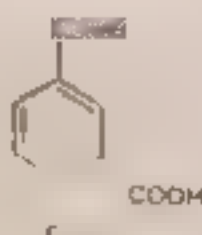
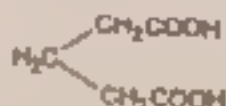
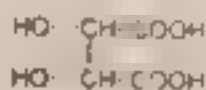
Total Marks Section B and C: 66

Section - B (Marks 42) (14 x 3 = 42)

Q2 Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not exceed 5 to 6 lines

(i) Name the following compounds according to IUPAC system

03



- (ii) Acetic acid is a component of vinegar
a. How is Acetic acid manufactured from Acetylene?
b. What is glacial acetic acid?

02
01

(iii) Esters formed carboxylic acids give different flavours. What type of flavour is given by Amylacetate (isobutyl formate)?
Benzylacetate

03

- (iv) a. How is acetic acid prepared from ethyl nitrate?
b. Give the mechanism for the reaction of acetic acid with SOCl_2

01
02

- (i) Write the structural formula of the following.
- a. Acrylonitrile b. Acetophenone c. Adipic acid 03
- (ii) What is Fisher esterification? Give mechanism. 05
- (iii) Predict the product of the following reactions:
- a. $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH} + \text{H}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{P}}$
- b. $\text{R}-\underset{\text{NH}_2}{\text{CH}}-\text{COOH} \xrightarrow[\text{-HCl}]{\text{NaCN}}$
- c. $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH} + \text{NaHCO}_3 \longrightarrow$
- (iv) a. What are lactones? 01
b. Why methanoic acid is usually called formic acid? 01
c. Why low molecular mass carboxylic acids are water soluble while high mol. mass are insoluble? 1
- (v) a. Write the reactivity order of functional derivatives of carboxylic acids. 1.5
b. What are acid anhydrides, how they are formed? 1.5
- (vi) a. Describe the acidity of carboxylic acids? 03
- (vii) a. How may amides be prepared? 01
b. Describe the mechanism of decarboxylation of dicarboxylic acids. 02
- (viii) a. How ethanol is converted into acetic acid? 01
b. What is nucleophilic acyl substitution? Give example. 02
- (ix) a. What are dicarboxylic acids? 1.5
b. Describe the structure of a COOH group? 1.5
- (x) a. How the acid by product such as HCl is removed from the solution? 1
b. Why acetic acid is often called glacial acetic acid? 1.5
- (xi) a. Molecular mass of carboxylic acid appears double in a non polar solvent. Why? 02
b. What happens when acid anhydrides are treated with alcohol? 01
- (xii) a. How α -amino acids can be converted into α -hydroxy acids? 01
b. Write two chemical reactions in which carboxy group of carboxylic acid is involved? 02
- (xiii) a. How would you convert acetic acid into Acetamide? 1
b. What happened when calcium acetate is heated? 01
c. How may nitriles be converted into carboxylic acid? 1
- (xiv) How does acetic acid reacts with the following?
- a. Methanol b. PCl_5 c. LiAlH_4
- (xv) What happens when
- a. Sodium metal is dropped in acetic acid
- b. Sodium formate is heated at high temperature in presence of soda lime
- c. What is oxonium ion?

Section C

Note: Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. $2 \times (3 = 26)$

- Q. 2. a. How will you prepare carboxylic acids from?
- (i) Alkyl nitriles (ii) Hydrolysis of esters

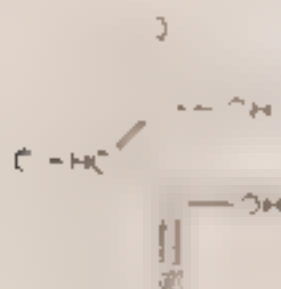
- Give the reagents and conditions for the following reactions:
 SOCl_2
- What type of carboxylic acid derivatives are formed in the following reactions?
- How esters are prepared?

Q 4. a. How would you convert Acetic acid into the following compounds?

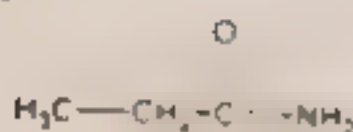
- Methane
- Diethyl ether
- Write the mechanism of reaction of a Grignard reagent with a carboxylic acid.

Q 5. a. Write the mechanism of reaction of a Grignard reagent with a carboxylic acid.
 b. Give the IUPAC names of the following compounds:

(i)



(ii)

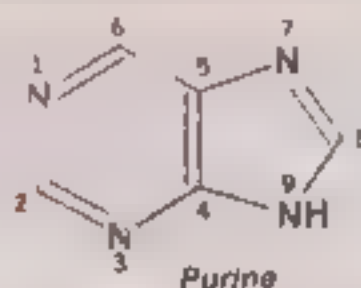


(iii) Adipic acid

(iv) Valeric acid

c. How many acid halides can be converted into different functional derivatives of carboxylic acids?

CHAPTER # 21 BIOCHEMISTRY



INTRODUCTION TO BIOCHEMISTRY

Biochemistry is the branch of science concerned with studying the various molecules that occur in living cells and organisms, with their chemical reactions.

Biochemistry is a hybrid science

Biology is the science of living organisms and chemistry is the science of atoms and molecules, so biochemistry is the science of the atoms and molecules in living organisms

Biochemistry is concerned with the complete spectrum of all forms of life from extremely simple viruses and bacteria to complex human beings.

It attempts to describe the structures, mechanisms, and chemical processes studied by living organisms on molecular level

Living organisms should be able to transform matter and energy into different forms, show response to changes in their environment and show growth and reproduction

MACROMOLECULES

Molecules containing large number of atoms and high molecular mass are called macromolecules

All living organisms undergo changes due to large organic compounds called macromolecules

Four main types of macromolecules control all activities. They are carbohydrates, proteins, lipids and nucleic acids.

CARBOHYDRATES

Old Definition

Carbohydrates are called carbohydrates because they contain carbon, hydrogen and oxygen in the ratio of 1:2:1, generally in proportion to form water with the general formula $C_nH_{2n}O_n$

Modern Definition:

Carbohydrates are polyhydroxy compounds of aldehydes or ketones

Remember!

All the organic compounds containing hydrogen and oxygen in the ratio of 1:2:1 are called carbohydrates

- eg.
- | | | |
|-------------------|------------------|---------------|
| (i) Formaldehyde | $HCHO$ | (CH_2O) |
| (ii) Acetic acid | CH_3COOH | $(C_2H_4O_2)$ |
| (iii) Lactic acid | $CH_3CH(OH)COOH$ | $(C_3H_6O_3)$ |
- On the other hand, Rhamnose ($C_6H_{12}O_5$) does not have the ratio of 1:2:1, so it is not a carbohydrate

Importance of Carbohydrates

Carbohydrates or saccharides are the most abundant of the four types of macromolecules

These are sugars or starches

They have several roles in living organisms, including energy transportation

components of plants and arthropods

Carbohydrate derivatives are actively involved in fertilization

clotting and growth

- Most organic matter on earth is made of carbohydrates because they are involved in so many processes including
 - ✓ Energy stores, fuels, and metabolic intermediates
 - ✓ Ribose and deoxyribose sugars are part of the structural framework of RNA and DNA
 - ✓ The cell walls of bacteria are mainly made of polysaccharides types of carbohydrate
 - ✓ Cellulose (a type of carbohydrate) makes up most of plant cell walls
 - ✓ Carbohydrates are linked to many proteins and lipids where they are vitally involved in interactions

CLASSIFICATION OF CARBOHYDRATES

Exercise Q3 (i) Describe different classes of Carbohydrates

Carbohydrates are classified into three types

MONOSACCHARIDES

Definition: The carbohydrates which do not hydrolyse to simpler units are called monosaccharides. This is the smallest possible sugar unit.

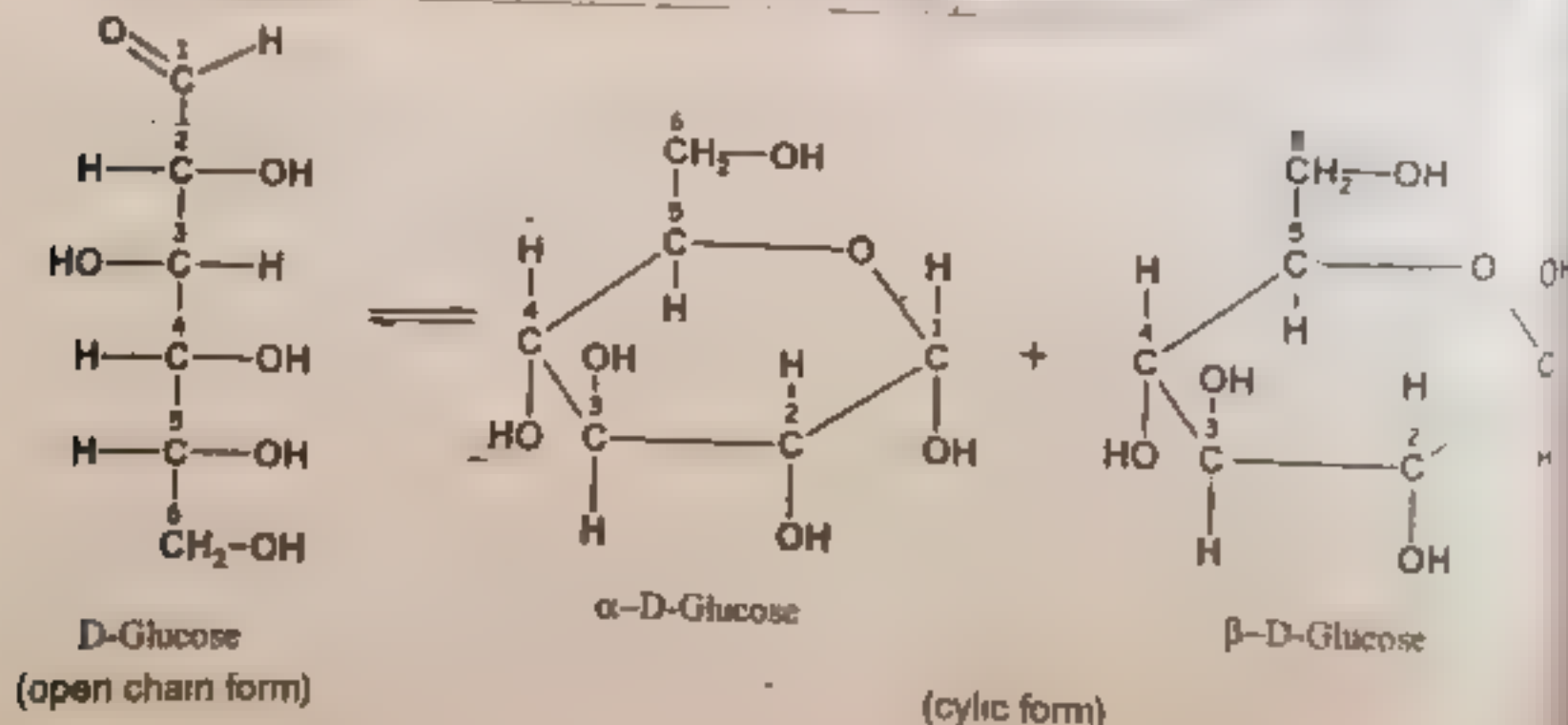
- The term blood sugar refers to glucose in the blood
- Glucose is a major source of energy for a cell
- Glucose is naturally in honey and corns
- In human nutrition, galactose can be found most readily in milk and dairy products
- Fructose is found mostly in vegetables and fruits grapes.
- When monosaccharides join together in linked groups they are called polysaccharides

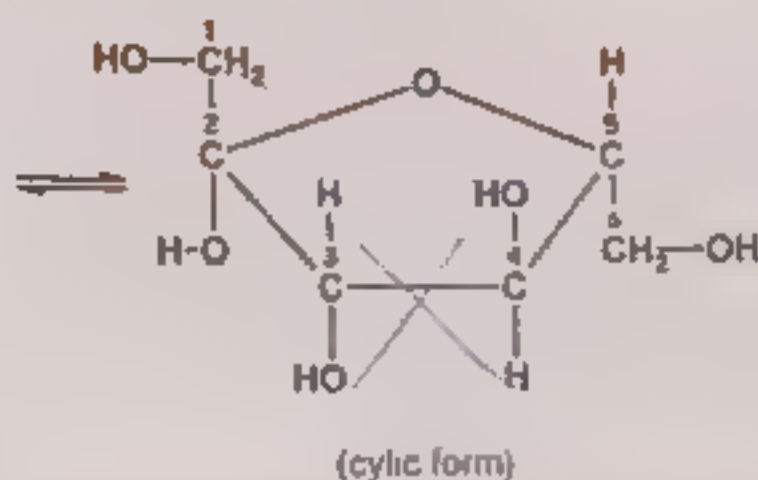
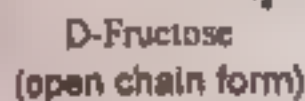
Examples: glucose, galactose or fructose

CLASSIFICATION OF MONOSACCHARIDES

- Monosaccharides can be further classified by the number of carbons present
- Among these hexoses (6-carbons) are most common

Six = Hexose	Number of Carbons	Three = Triose
Glucose	Five = Pentose	Glyceraldehyde
Galactose	Ribose	
Fructose		





Definition: Carbohydrate producing two monosaccharide units on hydrolysis are called disaccharides

- In these two monosaccharide molecules are bonded together to form disaccharides
- Disaccharides are polysaccharides. The term "poly" specifies any number higher than one while "di" specifies exactly two

Examples: lactose, maltose, and sucrose.

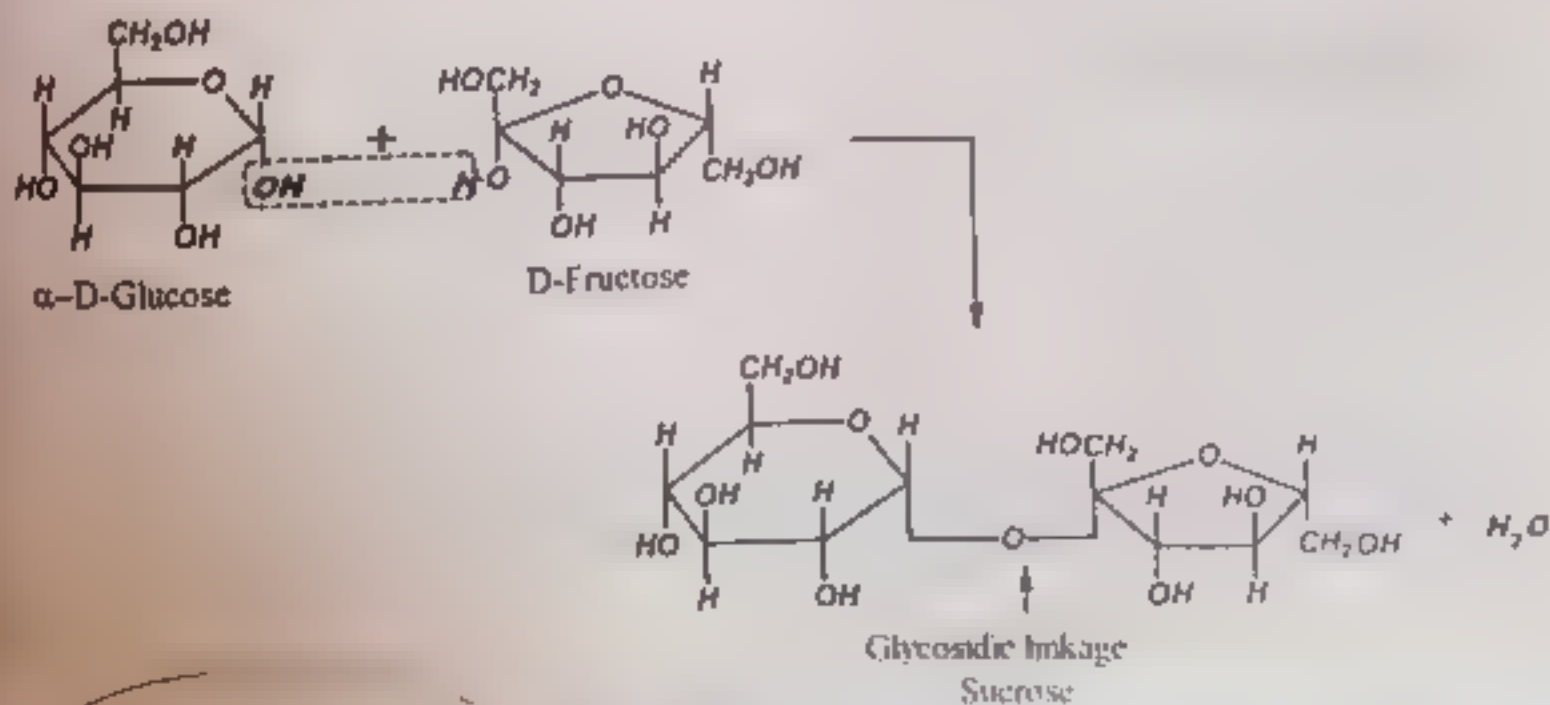
Occurrences:

- Lactose is formed in the milk
- Sucrose occurs in sugarcane, sugar beet, mango, pineapple, almond and apricot

How the monosaccharides combine with each other:

The OH group of one monosaccharide molecule acts as alcohol. It forms a glycosidic linkage with the hemiacetal group of second monosaccharide molecule. In this way, glucoside is produced which is called disaccharide.

Thus, disaccharides are the acetals formed from two monosaccharides by the elimination of one molecule of H_2O molecule as shown below.



If one glucose molecule is bonded with a galactose molecule, lactose is formed with the formula $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$.

POLYSACCHARIDES

Definition: The polysaccharides

- Polysaccharides are long chains of monosaccharides. The chain may be branched or unbranched.
- Polysaccharides are composed of thousands of monosaccharides.
- Polysaccharides are complex compounds. A complex compound is a polymeric compound which is made up of many small molecules.

Examples: Starch, cellulose etc

A brief summary is presented below.

Monosaccharides	Disaccharides	Polysaccharides
Glucose Fructose Ribose Glyceraldehyde	Sucrose	Starch

Interesting Information

A new system for classifying carbohydrates is the glycemic index. The glycemic index ranks foods according to how they affect blood sugar level by measuring how much the blood sugar increases after one eats.

FUNCTIONS OF CARBOHYDRATES

The main functions of carbohydrates are given below

- They are source of energy. Thus, they spare protein so that protein can concentrate on building, repairing and maintaining body tissues instead of being used up as an energy source.
- For proper fat metabolism, carbohydrates must be present. If there are not enough carbohydrates, excess amounts of fat are used for energy. The body is not able to handle this large amount so quickly, so it accumulates ketone bodies, which make the body acidic. This causes a condition called ketosis.
- Carbohydrate is necessary for the regulation of nerve tissue. These are the only source of energy for the brain.
- Certain types of carbohydrates support the growth of healthy bacteria in the intestines for digestion.
- Some carbohydrates are high in fibre. These help prevent constipation. These also lower the risk of diseases such as cancer, heart disease and diabetes.
- Polysaccharides act as food stores in plants in the form of starch, or in humans and other animals in the form of glycogen.
- Polysaccharides also have structural roles in the plant cell wall in the form of cellulose or pectin and in the outer skeleton of insects in the form of chitin.

THREE MAJOR FUNCTIONS OF CARBOHYDRATES

Three major functions of polysaccharides are discussed below

2. STORAGE POLYSACCHARIDES**Glycogen:**

The carbohydrates are stored as glycogen in humans and animals

It is a polysaccharide that is stored in the liver and muscles.

Starch:

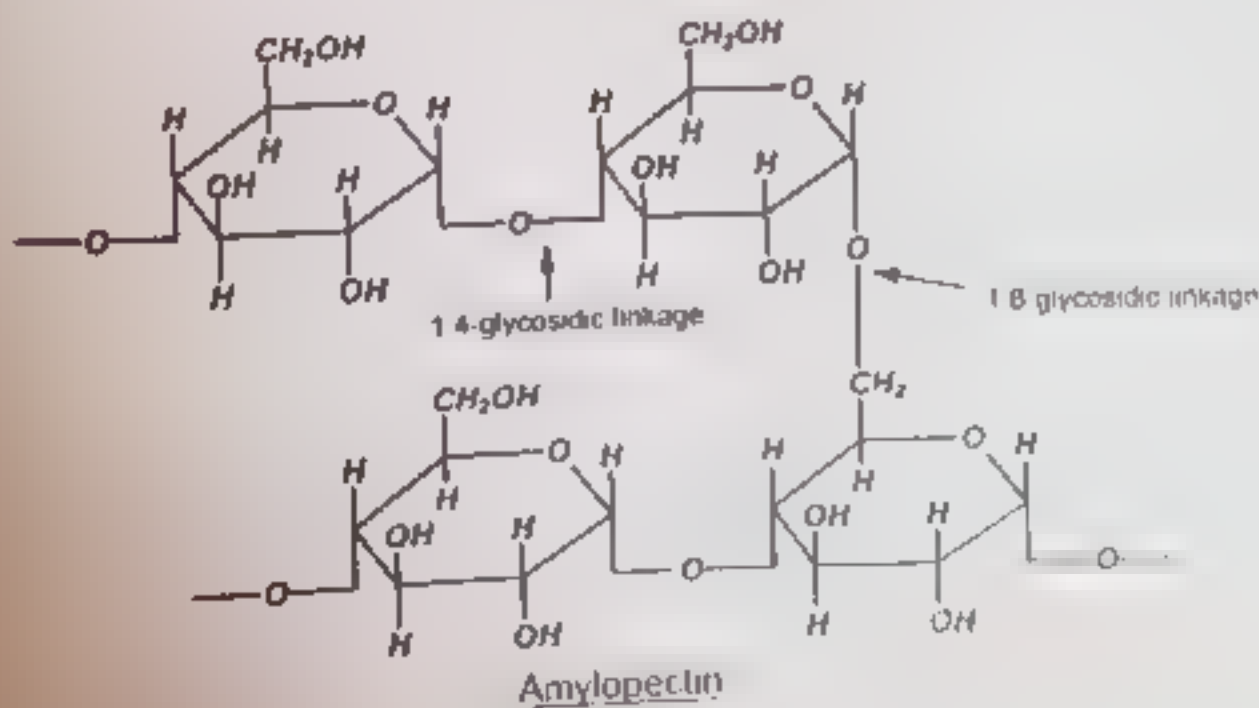
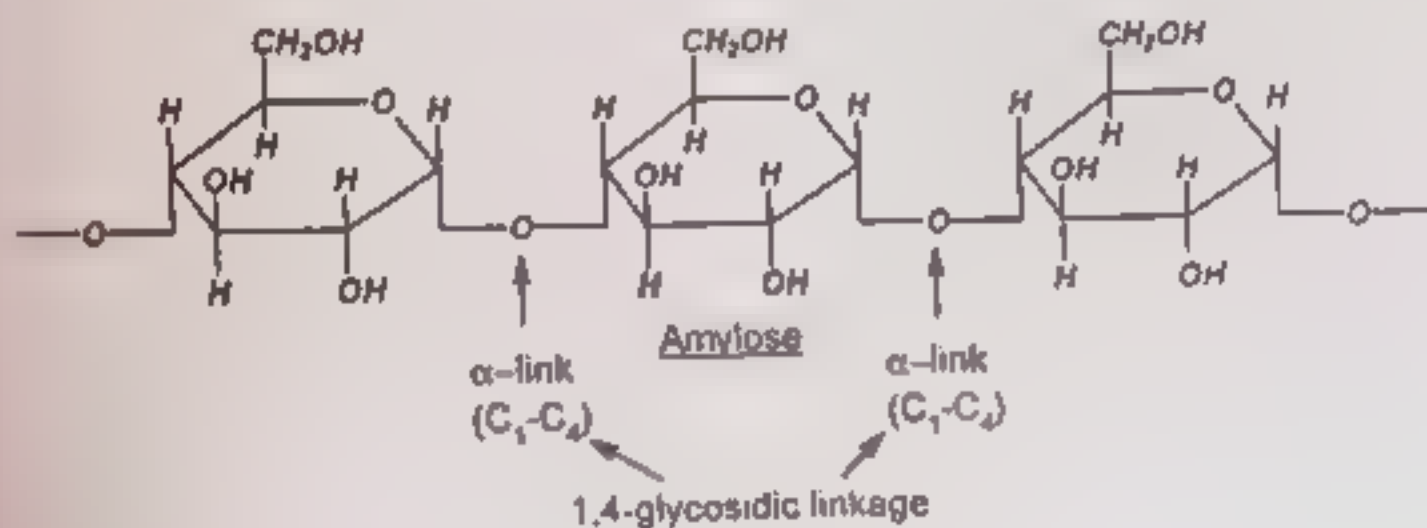
These are glucose polymers made up of Amylose (10-20%) and Amylopectin (80-90%)

Starches are water insoluble.

Humans and animals digest them by hydrolysis. Our bodies have amylases which break them down

Rich sources of starches for humans are potatoes, rice and wheat

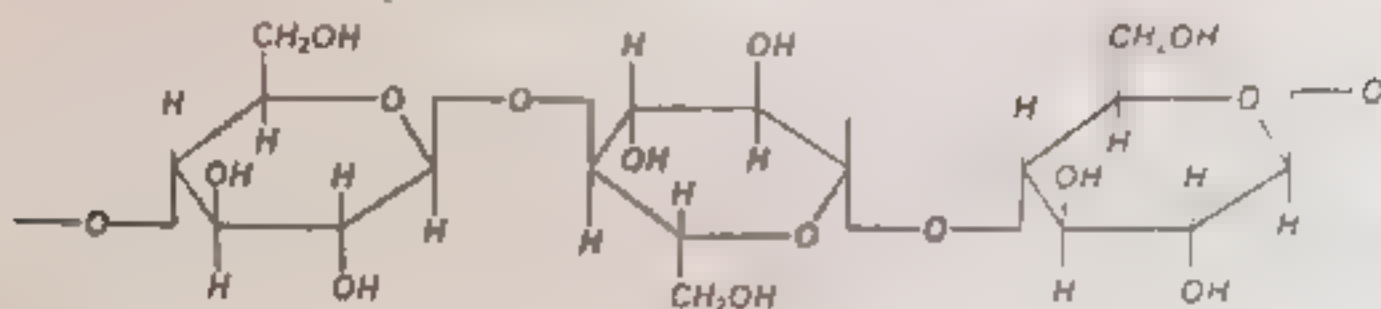
Structures of Amylose and Amylopectin are given below



(2) STRUCTURAL POLYSACCHARIDES

Cellulose

- The structural constituents of plants are made mainly of cellulose.
- Wood is mostly made of cellulose
- Paper and cotton are almost pure cellulose



Chitin:

- It is one of the most abundant natural materials in the world
- Microorganisms such as bacteria and fungi secrete chitinases which break down chitin
- Chitin is the main component of fungi cell walls. The exoskeletons of insects like crabs, lobsters, ants, beetles, and butterflies

(3) BACTERIAL POLYSACCHARIDES

- They are found in bacteria, especially in bacterial capsules
- Pathogenic bacteria often produce a thick layer of mucous like polysaccharide. This acts as a barrier from the host's immune system
- Thus, if the bacteria are in a human then human's immune system would less likely attack the bacteria as the polysaccharide layer covers its pathogenic properties

NUTRITIONAL IMPORTANCE OF CARBOHYDRATES

- Scientific research has shown the diverse functions of carbohydrates in the body and their importance in diet
- Bread, pasta, beans, potatoes, bran, rice and cereals are carbohydrate rich foods

Remember!

- 1 gram of carbohydrate contains approximately 4 kilocalories (kcal)
- 1 gram of protein contains approximately 4 kcal
- 1 gram of fat contains approximately 9 kcal

(A) BODY WEIGHT REGULATION

People eating a diet high in carbohydrates are less likely to accumulate body fat compared with those following a low carbohydrate/high-fat diet

It is due to three reasons

- It could be due to the lower energy density of high carbohydrate diets, as carbohydrates have fewer calories per gram than fats. Fiber-rich foods also tend to be bulky and physically filling, so fewer calories may be consumed.
- Studies show that carbohydrates, both in the form of starch and sugars, work quickly to aid satiety and that those consuming high carbohydrate diets are therefore less likely to overeat.
- It is evident that diets high in carbohydrate, as compared with those high in fat, reduce the likelihood of developing obesity.

Interesting Information

- In several studies, high sugar consumers have been found to be slimmer than low sugar consumers
- Obesity means having too much body fat

(B) DIABETES

- There is no evidence that sugar consumption is linked to the development of any type of diabetes.
- There is now a good evidence that obesity and physical inactivity increase the likelihood of developing non-insulin dependent diabetes, which usually occurs in middle age.
- Weight reduction is usually necessary and is the primary dietary aim for people with non-insulin dependent (Type II) diabetes.
- Consuming a wide range of carbohydrate foods is an acceptable part of the diet of all diabetics, and the inclusion of low glycaemic index foods is beneficial as they help to regulate blood glucose control.
- Most recommendations for the dietary management of diabetes allow a modest amount of ordinary sugar as the inclusion of sugar with a meal has little impact on either blood glucose or insulin concentrations in people with diabetes.

(C) DENTAL HEALTH

Factors Affecting Tooth Decay

The incidence of tooth decay is influenced by a number of factors. These include

- degree of oral hygiene and plaque removal carried out
- availability of fluoride,
- type of food eaten,
- frequency of consumption of any fermentable carbohydrate
- genetic factors

Role of Carbohydrates in Tooth Decay

- Foods containing sugars or starch can be broken down by the enzymes and bacteria in the mouth. This produces acid which attacks the enamel of the teeth.
- The important thing is the often use of carbohydrate not the amount it's got in other carbohydrate.
- After an acid challenge, saliva provides a natural repair process which rebuilds the enamel.
- When carbohydrate-containing foods are consumed too frequently or chewed over time, this natural repair process is overcome by the tooth decay process. Thus, the risk of tooth decay is increased.

(D) GETTING ACTIVE

- There is now substantial evidence that carbohydrates can improve the performance of athletes.
- During high intensity exercise, carbohydrates are the main fuel for the muscles.
- By consuming high levels of carbohydrate before, during and after training, athletes can keep their muscles well stocked. These stocks help the athlete to perform for longer and help their bodies recover faster.
- The vital role of physical activity in maintaining health and fitness is becoming increasingly apparent.
- There is no doubt that many people would benefit from increasing their activity levels and losing excess weight. It also reduces the risk of developing diseases such as heart disease and diabetes.
- If you want to keep fit and active, a well-balanced high carbohydrate diet is recommended.

QUICK QUIZ-1

(1) What are carbohydrates? Give its general formula.

Old Definition

Carbohydrates are called carbohydrates because they contain carbon and hydrogen in the ratio of 1:2:1 generally in proportion to form water with the general formula $C_n(H_2O)_n$.

Modern Definition:

Carbohydrates are polyhydroxy compounds of aldehydes or ketones which can be assigned some general formula.

CH # 11 Biochemistry



2) Quote one example of each type of carbohydrates

Carbohydrates

Monosaccharides: e.g. glucose

Disaccharides: e.g. lactose, maltose

Polysaccharides: e.g. starch

3) Write structural formulae of Glucose and Fructose

Page 398, 399

4) What do you understand by glycemic index?

It is a new system for classifying carbohydrates is the glycemic index

The glycemic index ranks foods on how they affect blood sugar level by measuring how much the blood sugar increases after one eats

5) How much calories do 1gm of carbohydrate have?

1 gram of carbohydrate contains approximately 4 kilocalories (kcal)

6) On what factors tooth decay depend?

The incidence of tooth decay is influenced by a number of factors. These are

- degree of oral hygiene and plaque removal carried out
- availability of fluoride
- type of food eaten
- frequency of consumption of any fermentable carbohydrate
- genetic factors

PROTEINS

Definition The molecules which give amino acids upon hydrolysis are called proteins

- Proteins are probably the most important class of biomolecular molecules, although of course carbohydrates are also essential for life
- Proteins are the basis for the major structural components of animals and plants
- Proteins are natural polymer molecules consisting of amino acid units. The molecular weights of proteins may range from two to several thousand
- These molecules contain nitrogen, carbon, hydrogen and oxygen
- They act as biological catalysts (enzymes), form structural parts of organs, serve as recognition factors, and act as molecules of immunity. Proteins can also be a source of fuel

CLASSIFICATION OF PROTEINS

Three classes of proteins are usually defined

A Simple Proteins

Definition Those which give one amino acid only upon hydrolysis

Examples

- **Albumins**
 - ✓ blood serum albumin, milk lactalbumin, egg white ovalbumin, lentils (legumelin), kidney (phaseolin), wheat (leucosin)
 - ✓ Globular protein is soluble in water and dilute salt solution
 - ✓ It is precipitated by saturation with ammonium sulfate solution
 - ✓ It is coagulated by heat
 - ✓ It is usually found in plant and animal tissues

- **Globulins.**

- ✓ blood (serum globulins, muscle myosin, potato tuberin, Brassica nuts, excretion, hemip edesan, lentils (legumin))
- ✓ Globular protein is sparingly soluble in water and soluble in neutral solutions
- ✓ It is precipitated by dilute ammonium sulfate
- ✓ It is coagulated by heat
- ✓ It is distributed in both plant and animal tissues

- **Glutelins.**

- ✓ Wheat (glutenin); rice (oryzenin)
- ✓ It is insoluble in water and dilute salt solutions
- ✓ It is soluble in dilute acids
- ✓ It is found in grains and cereals

- **Histones:**

- ✓ thymus gland, pancreas and nucleoproteins (nucleohistone)
- ✓ It is soluble in water, salt solutions and dilute acids
- ✓ It is insoluble in ammonium hydroxide
- ✓ It yields large amounts of lysine and arginine
- ✓ It is present combined with nucleic acids within cells

- **Scleroproteins:**

- ✓ connective tissues and hard tissues
- ✓ Fibrous protein is insoluble in all solvents
- ✓ It is resistant to digestion

B. CONJUGATED PROTEINS

Definition: Those which give an amino acid and non protein group upon analysis.

Examples:

- **Nucleoproteins.**

- ✓ cytoplasm of cells (ribonucleoprotein), nucleus of living cells (deoxyribonucleoprotein), viruses and bacteriophages.
- ✓ It contains nucleic acids, nitrogen and phosphorus
- ✓ It is present in chromosomes and in all living forms as a combination of protein with either DNA or RNA.

- **Mucoprotein:**

- ✓ saliva (mucin) and egg white (ovomucoid)
- ✓ Proteins combined with amino sugars, sugar acids and sulfates

- **Glycoprotein.**

- ✓ bone (osseomucoid), tendons (tendomucoid) and cartilage (chondromucoid)
- ✓ If it contains more than 4% then hexosamine, mucoproteins
- ✓ If less than 4%, then glycoproteins.

- **Phosphoprotein:**

- ✓ milk (casein) and egg yolk (ovovitellin)
- ✓ Phosphoric acid joined in ester linkage to protein.

C. DERIVED PROTEINS:

Definition Those which are derived from simple and conjugated proteins

Examples:

- **Proteins:**
 - ✓ edestan (from elastin) and myosin (myosin)
 - ✓ It results from short action of acids or enzymes
 - ✓ It is insoluble in water
- **Proteases:**
 - ✓ Intermediate products of protein digestion
 - ✓ It is soluble in water
 - ✓ It is not coagulated by heat.
 - ✓ It is precipitated by saturated ammonium sulfate
 - ✓ It results from partial digestion of protein by pepsin or trypsin
- **Peptones:**
 - ✓ Intermediate products of protein digestion
 - ✓ It has the same properties as proteases except that they can not be salted out
 - ✓ It is of smaller molecular weight than proteases
- **Peptides:**
 - ✓ Intermediate products of protein digestion
 - ✓ Two or more amino acids joined by a peptide linkage.
 - ✓ It is hydrolyzed to individual amino acids.

STRUCTURE OF PROTEINS

Exercise Q9 (II): Explain the structure of Proteins.

The structure of a protein depends upon the spatial arrangement of polypeptide chains present in proteins

Since three spatial arrangements are possible proteins have the following structures

- (A) Primary structure
- (B) Secondary structure
- (C) Tertiary structure
- (D) Quaternary structure

Quick Quiz-2 (2) Differentiate primary, secondary and tertiary structure of Proteins

(A) THE PRIMARY STRUCTURE OF PROTEINS

- The sequence of amino acids in a peptide chain is called primary structure
- Amino acids are linked with one another through peptide bond. The arrangement of these acids is called primary structure

(B) THE SECONDARY STRUCTURE OF PROTEINS

- Peptide chains may acquire spiral shape or may be present in a zig-zag manner. This coiling or zig-zagging of polypeptide is called secondary structure of protein.
- It is due to the formation of H-Bonds.

Biochemistry

THE TERTIARY STRUCTURE OF PROTEINS

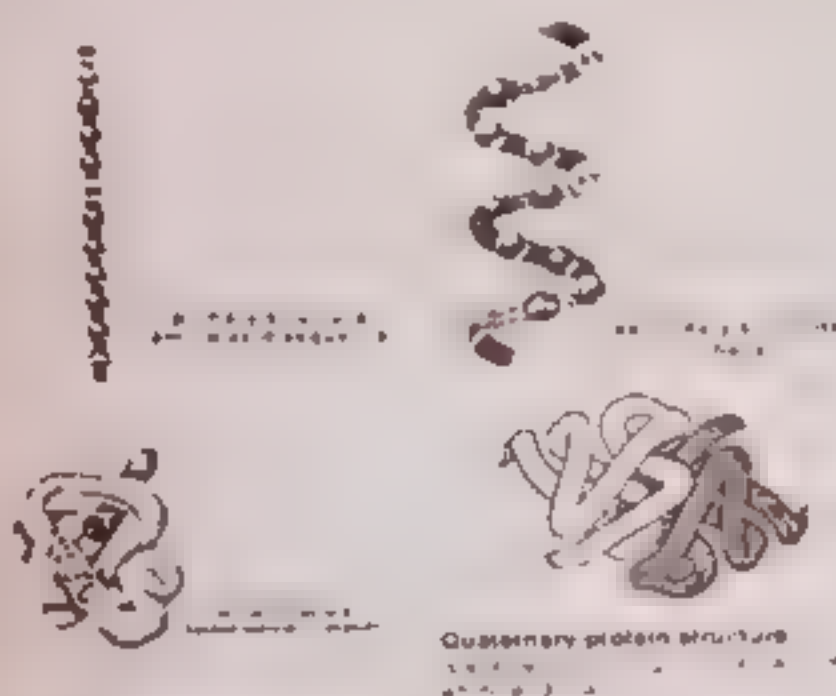
Twisting or folding of polypeptide chains represents tertiary structure.

QUATERNARY PROTEINS

Quaternary means four. This is the fourth phase of protein structure.

Quaternary protein is the arrangement of multiple polypeptide chains into a functional subunit complex.

A variety of bonding interactions hold the various chains into a particular geometric arrangement.



PROPERTIES OF PROTEINS

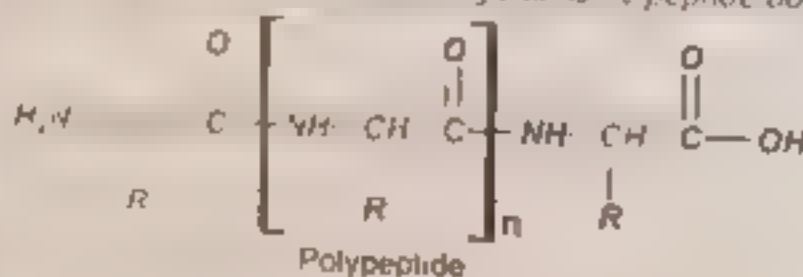
- (1) Proteins are one of the four major groups of macromolecules.
- (2) These giant molecules carry out many of the functions of the cell.
- (3) Proteins are involved in such processes as food digestion, muscle contraction, blood clotting, and much more.
- (4) They are complex, huge associations of molecular subunits that are difficult to understand.
- (5) Fortunately they are all built using the same construction kit.
- (6) As with all macromolecules, proteins are polymers composed of many small molecules joined together in long chains.
- (7) There are about 20-22 common amino acids found in most proteins. Each of these small molecules has the same common structure, but varies in the nature of one chemical group called the R-group.
- (8) It is the varying structure and properties of these R-groups that make each amino acid different from another.
- (9) Amino acids are joined together in long chains called "polypeptides" a name which comes from the Greek word for "many". The group of atoms that hold amino acids together is called a peptide bond. The order or sequence of amino acids along a polypeptide chain determines the critical property of proteins, its primary structure.

IMPORTANCE OF PROTEINS

1. Proteins are essential for the growth and development of the body.
2. Proteins are the building blocks of life.
3. Proteins are the main source of energy for the body.
4. Proteins are the main source of amino acids.
5. Some of the proteins are used for the synthesis of hormones.
6. Proteins have a protective function in the body.
7. Growth is obtained by the synthesis of proteins in the body.
8. Casein is an important protein in milk.
9. Proteins are used for the synthesis of antibodies.

QUICK QUIZ-2

- (1) What are proteins? Give examples.
The molecules which are made up of amino acids are called proteins.
Proteins are classified into three types:
Simple Proteins: e.g. Albumins, Globulins, Histones
Conjugated proteins: e.g. Nucleoproteins, Glycoproteins
Derived proteins: e.g. Proteases, Peptones
- (2) Differentiate primary, secondary and tertiary structure of Proteins
Page 394
- (3) What are polypeptides?
When amino acids are joined together by peptide bond then the compound is called polypeptide.



ENZYMES (Enzyme means in and Zyme means yeast)

Definition: Enzymes are biological catalysts which alter the speed of metabolic activities in the living bodies. Enzymes are complex protein molecules which are quite specific in action and sensitive to temperature.

ROLE OF ENZYMES AS A BIOCATALYST

The life of living organisms is a reflection of what is going on in their bodies.

- **Metabolism** refers to the biochemical reactions that occur in living organisms in order to maintain their environments. It is of two types:
 - ✓ **Anabolism** refers to the biochemical reactions in which larger molecules are synthesized.
 - ✓ **Catabolism** refers to the biochemical reactions in which larger molecules are broken down.
- Energy is released in catabolism and it is utilized in anabolism. In this way, biochemical reactions are actually energy transfers.
- During metabolism, energy is transformed from one form to the other by enzymes.

- Enzymes act as **biocatalysts** and speed up and regulate metabolic pathways.
- Enzymes are proteins that catalyze (i.e. speed up) biochemical reactions. These are not changed during the reaction.
- The molecules at which enzymes act are called **substrates**, and enzyme converts them into different molecules, called **products**.

Quick Quiz-3 (2) How does enzyme work?

HOW DOES ENZYME WORK?

- When enzyme attaches with substrate, a temporary enzyme-substrate (ES) complex is formed.
- Enzyme catalyzes the reactions and substrate is transformed into product.
- After it, the ES complex breaks enzyme product.



(A) LOCK AND KEY MODEL.

- In 1894, a German chemist Emil Fischer proposed lock and key model.
- According to this model, both enzyme and substrate possess specific shapes that fit exactly into one another. This model explains enzyme specificity.

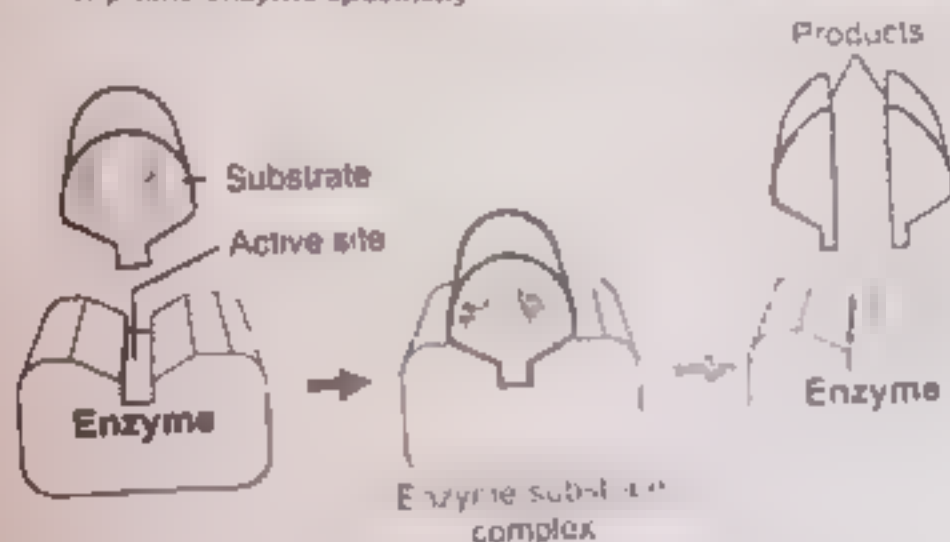
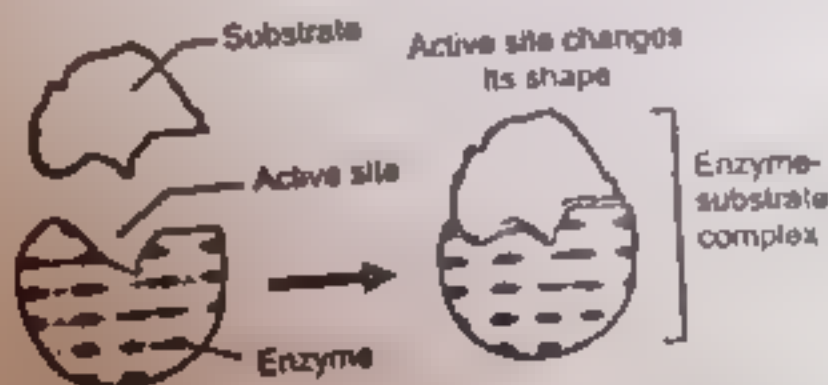


Fig. Lock and Key Model

(B) INDUCED-FIT MODEL.

- In 1958, an American biologist Daniel Koshland suggested a modification of lock and key model and proposed **induced-fit model**.
- According to this model, active site is not a rigid structure. Instead, it moulds itself into a specific shape to perform its function.



Induced Fit Model

"Induced fit model" is more acceptable than "lock and key" model of enzyme action.

DO YOU KNOW?

- (1) Wilhelm Kühne (1817) first time used the term **enzyme**.
- (2) There are over 2000 known enzymes, each **specific** for a particular **substrate** and **product**.
- (3) Enzymes are **substrate specific**.
- The enzyme **protease** breaks down **proteins** into **amino acids** and **peptides**.
- Similarly **lipase** enzyme acts on **lipids** and breaks them into **fatty acids** and **glycerol**.

FACTORS AFFECTING ENZYME ACTIVITY:

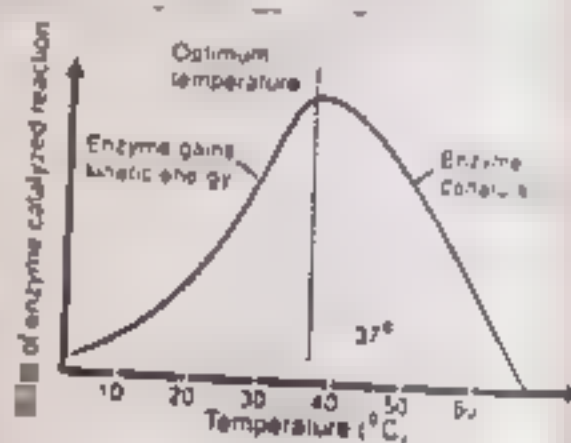
Exercise Q3 (iii) Briefly describe the factors that affect the Activity of enzymes

- Enzymes are **biological catalysts** that **speed up** the **rate** of **chemical reactions**.
- Any factor that **alters** the **chemistry** or **shape** of **enzyme molecule** can **affect** its **activity**.

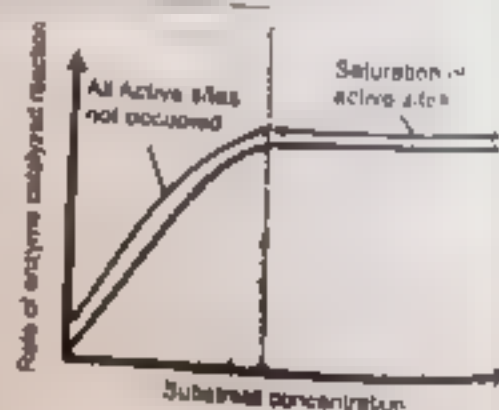
Following factors affect the enzyme activity

(i) TEMPERATURE

- Increase in temperature **speeds up** the **rate** of **enzyme catalyzed reactions** but **only up to a certain point**.
- Every enzyme **works** at its **maximum rate** at a **specific temperature** known as the **optimum temperature** for that enzyme.
- When temperature **crosses** a **certain limit** heat adds to the **activation energy** and also provides **kinetic energy** for the reaction. So reactions are **accelerated**.
- However when temperature is **raised well above** the **optimum temperature** heat energy **increases** the **vibrations** of **atoms** of **enzyme**. Thus the **globular structure** of **enzyme** is **lost**. This is known as the **denaturation** of **enzyme**. It results in a **rapid decrease** in **rate** of **enzyme action** and it may be **blocked completely**.

**(ii) SUBSTRATE CONCENTRATION**

- If **enzyme molecules** are **available** in a **reaction** then **increase** in **substrate concentration** **increases** the **rate** of **reaction**.
- If **enzyme concentration** is **kept constant** and **amount** of **substrate** is **increased** then a **point** is **reached** where **further increase** in **substrate concentration** **does not increase** the **rate** of **reaction**. At this point the **active sites** of **all enzymes** are **occupied** at **high substrate concentration**. Thus **more substrate molecules** **do not find** **free active site**. This state is **called saturation of active site** and **reaction rate** **does not increase**.

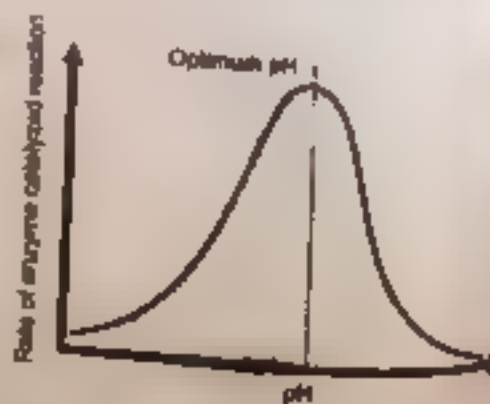
**(iii) pH**

- All enzymes **work** at their **maximum rate** at a **narrow range** of **pH** called as the **optimum pH**.
- A **slight change** in this **pH** causes **retardation** in **enzyme Activity** or **blocks it completely**.
- Change in **pH** can **affect** the **ionization** of the **amino acids** at the **active site**.
- Every enzyme has its **specific optimum pH value**.

e.g.

pepsin (working in stomach) is active in **acidic medium** (low pH)

trypsin (working in small intestine) shows its **Activity** in **alkaline medium** (high pH)



ROLE OF INHIBITORS IN ENZYME CATALYZED REACTIONS:

INHIBITORS

Substances that tend to decrease the activity of enzymes are called inhibitors

OR

An inhibitor is a chemical substance which can react (in place of substance) with the enzyme but is never transferred into products by blocking the active site of enzyme temporarily or permanently

Examples:

Poisons like cyanide, antibodies, anti metabolic + a disordered enzyme

TYPES OF INHIBITORS

Inhibitors can be divided into two types

- Irreversible inhibitors
- Reversible inhibitors

Irreversible Inhibitors

- They occupy the active sites by forming covalent bond with the active site of enzymes
- They decrease the reaction rate by occupying the active site of enzymes permanently

Reversible Inhibitors

- They form weak linkages with the enzyme
- Their effect can be neutralized completely or partially by increasing the concentration of substrate

ROLE OF INHIBITORS

- The inhibitors may decrease the activity of enzymes and thus inhibit the reaction either by combining directly with the enzyme or by reacting with the substrate to form products remain available to enzyme for activation

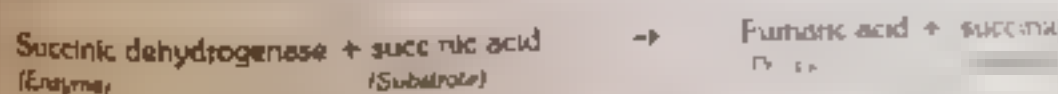
There are two types of inhibitions

Competitive Inhibition.

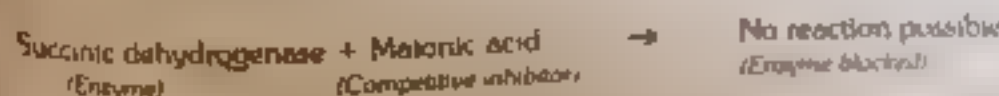
A number of inhibitors have structures similar to substrate molecules. Since they are similar to substrate, they may be selected by the enzyme binding sites. However, they are not converted into products. They compete with the original substrate for the same binding site. If the inhibitor has a higher affinity for the binding site than that of the substrate, so the substrate is displaced effectively. The enzyme becomes higher degree inactivated by the binding of the inhibitors. No products are formed. This type of inhibition is known as "competitive inhibition".

Example

Succinic acid (substrate) is converted into Fumaric acid (product) by the enzyme Succinic dehydrogenase.



But in the presence of malonic acid (competitive inhibitor) having similar structure to succinic acid, the binding sites are occupied by the malonic acid. Hence no succinate is formed. Hence no product is formed.



Non-Competative Inhibition

- Here the inhibitor binds to a site other than the active site, which distorts the enzyme's structure also affecting the active site. A genuine substrate binds the active site.
- In the reactions catalysed by enzymes irreversible inhibitors cause irreversible inhibition by blocking the active sites of enzymes or by occupying the active site. The rate of reaction is retarded due to the occupation of active sites of enzymes by irreversible inhibitors or by the destruction of the globular structure of enzymes.

Note

Competitive and non-competitive inhibitors are the two types of inhibitors.

INDUSTRIAL APPLICATION OF ENZYME:

Enzymes are extensively used in different industries for fast chemical reactions. For example:

- (1) **Food Industry:** Enzymes that break starch into simple sugars are used in the production of bread, beer, etc.
- (2) **Brewing Industry:** Enzymes break starch and proteins. The products are used to produce alcohol.
- (3) **Paper Industry:** Enzymes break starch to lower its viscosity that aids in making paper.
- (4) **Biological detergent:** Protease enzymes are used for the removal of stains. Enzymes are used in dish washing to remove resistant starch residue.

QUICK QUIZ-3

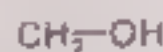
- (1) **What are enzymes? Why are they called biocatalysts?**
Enzymes are biocatalysts which alter the speed of metabolic activities in the living organisms.
Enzymes act as biocatalysts because they speed up and regulate the rate of chemical reactions.
- (2) **How does enzyme work?**
Page
- (3) **Who has used the term Enzyme first time?**
Winhelm Kuhne (1878, first time used the term enzyme (Greek $\epsilon\nu\zeta\eta\mu\alpha\iota$).
- (4) **Why are following scientists famous for?**
 - (i) **Emil Fischer**
In 1894, a German chemist, Emil Fischer proposed lock and key model for enzyme action.
According to this model, both enzyme and substrate possess specific shapes.
This model explains enzyme specificity.
 - (ii) **Daniel Koshland**
In 1958, an American biologist Daniel Koshland proposed the induced fit model.
According to this model, active site is not a rigid structure. Instead, it is induced into the required shape to perform its function.
- (5) **Enzymes are extensively used in different industries. Comment on this statement.**
Enzymes are extensively used in different industries for fast chemical reactions. For example:
 - (i) **Food Industry:** Enzymes that break starch into simple sugars are used in the production of bread, beer, etc.
 - (ii) **Brewing Industry:** Enzymes break starch and proteins. The products are used to produce alcohol.
 - (iii) **Paper Industry:** Enzymes break starch to lower its viscosity that aids in making paper.
 - (iv) **Biological detergent:** Protease enzymes are used for the removal of stains. Enzymes are used in dish washing to remove resistant starch residues.

LIPIDS:

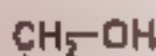
Naturally occurring organic compounds of animals and plants or gin which are soluble in organic solvents

Simplified Lipids

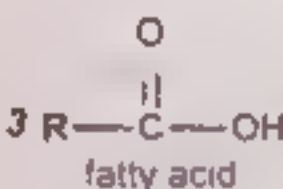
- The word lipid is derived from Greek word *lipos* means fat
- These molecules consist of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen atoms
- The main constituents of all membranes in all cells are lipids. They are also storage molecules
- intermediates in signalling pathways. Vitamins A, D, E, K are lipids
- All lipids are hydrophobic:** this is the one property common to all lipids. Some lipids are also amphipathic
- molecules includes fats and oils, waxes, phospholipids, and some other related compounds
- Fats and oils are made from two kinds of molecules:** glycerol and fatty acids. Glycerol has three hydroxyl group on each of its three carbon atoms. Fatty acids are synthesized from acetyl-CoA



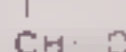
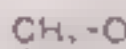
Glycerol



Glycerol



fatty acid



Triglyceride

CLASSIFICATION OF LIPIDS

There are three broad classes of lipids

SIMPLE LIPIDS

These are the ester of fatty acids with glycerol

Examples:

Triglycerides, neutral fats: These are found in adipose tissue and

Waxes: beeswax, head oil of sperm whale, carnauba oil, and

COMPOUND LIPIDS

These contain radicals in addition to fatty acids and alcohols

Examples:

- Phospholipids (phosphatides):** Found chiefly in animal tissues
- Plasmalogen:** Found in brain, heart, and muscle
- Lipoteichoic acid:** Found in brain, heart, kidneys, and plant tissues. It is a phosphatide linked to inositol. rapid synthesis and degradation processes.
- Sphingomyelin:** Found in nervous tissue, brain, and red blood cells.

DERIVED LIPIDS

These are hydrolytic product of compound lipids.

Fatty acids: occur in plant and animal foods. also exhibit in complex form from hydrolysis of fats. usually contains an even number of carbon atoms



Quick Quiz 4 3, Explain briefly the structure of Lipids

STRUCTURE OF LIPIDS

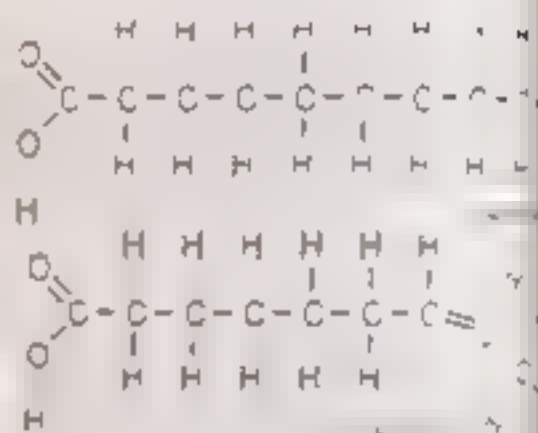
- Lipids are generally defined in terms of solubility: a proteins and nucleic acids are defined in terms of function.
- Lipids associate with one another in a hydrophobic manner.

Structure of Fatty Acids

- The "tail" of a fatty acid is a hydrocarbon chain.
- The "head" of the molecule is a carboxyl group.

Fatty acids are the main components of soap: they are soluble in water to emulsify and wash away the oily dirt. However, the whole molecule is hydrophobic.

- The terms saturated, mono-unsaturated and poly-unsaturated shows the number of hydrogens attached to the carbons of the fatty acids as compared to the number of double bonds between carbon atoms in the tail.



FATS:

- Fats are mostly obtained from animal sources.
- These have all single bonds between the carbons in their tails, all tails. Thus all the carbons are also bonded to the maximum number of hydrogens possible. Thus these are called **saturated** fats.
- Fats are solid at room temperature:** It is because the hydrocarbon chains in these fatty acids are fairly straight and can pack closely together. Their melting points are high making these fats solid at room temperature.

OILS:

- Oils are mostly obtained from plant sources. These have some double bonds between some carbons in the hydrocarbon tail. It causes bends or 'kinks' in the shape of the molecules.
- Since some of the carbon atoms share double bonds so they are bonded to less than saturated carbon atoms. Therefore these oils are called **unsaturated** fats.
- Oils are liquid at room temperature:** These are liquid at room temperature. It is because the hydrocarbon tails, unsaturated fats cannot pack as closely together. Thus the melting points are low making them liquid at room temperature.

Important!

The unsaturated fats are "healthier" than the saturated ones.

PROPERTIES OF LIPIDS

(1) PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

- Oils and fats may be either liquids or non-crystalline solids at room temperature.
- Fats and oils in the pure states are colourless, odourless and tasteless.
- The color fats arise due to foreign substances. For example yellow color of the butter is due to carotenoids.
- They are lighter than water.
- They are insoluble in water.
- They are readily soluble in organic solvents like diethyl ether, carbon disulphide, acetone, chloroform and carbon tetrachloride.
- They form emulsions when they are agitated with water in the presence of soap or detergent.
- Fats and oils are poor conductor of heat and electricity and serve as excellent insulator for the body.

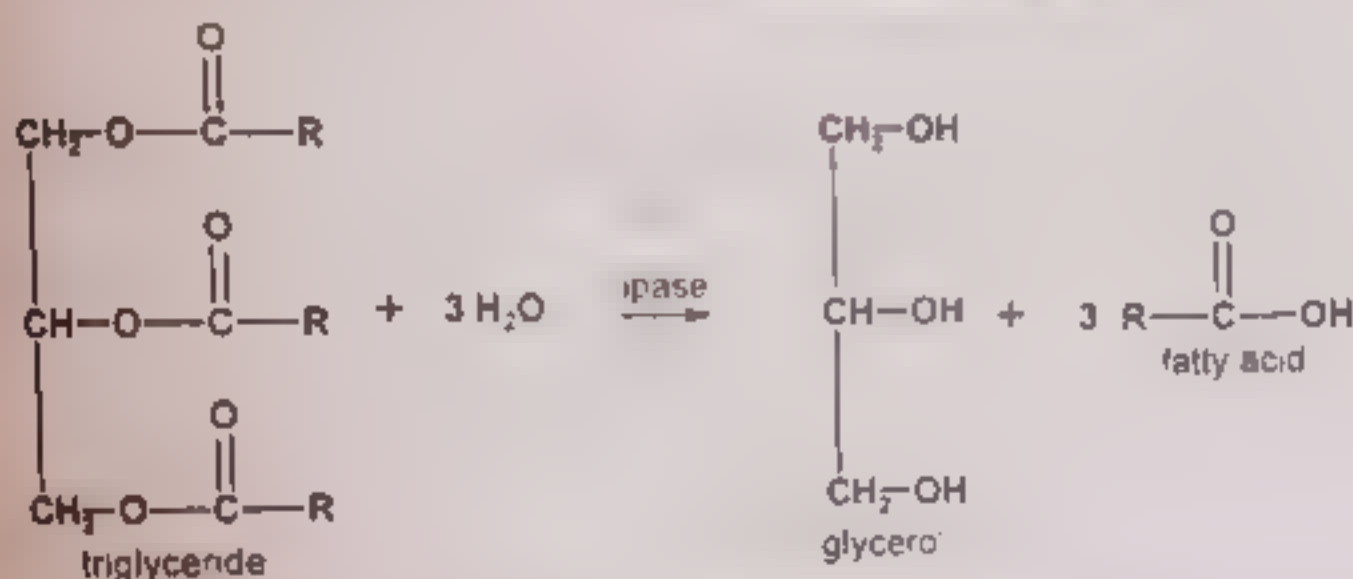
21. CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

Fats and oils undergo various types of reaction but the most important are:

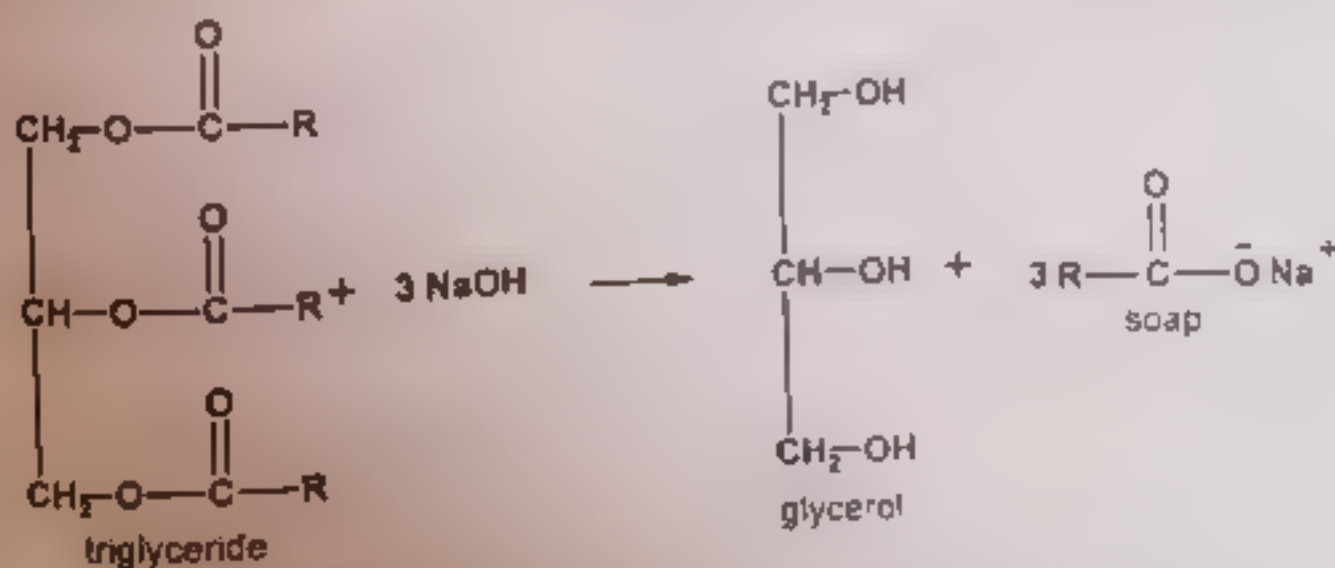
- (i) Hydrolysis
- (ii) Hydrogenation

1. HYDROLYSIS OF FATS AND OILS

- Fats and oils are triglycerides. They are esters. They are hydrolysed by enzymes which act as catalysts. These enzymes are called lipases.
- Actually, this hydrolysis takes place in the digestive tract of human beings and animals. Fatty acids are produced in animal body which play an important role in the metabolic processes.

**(2) SAPONIFICATION**

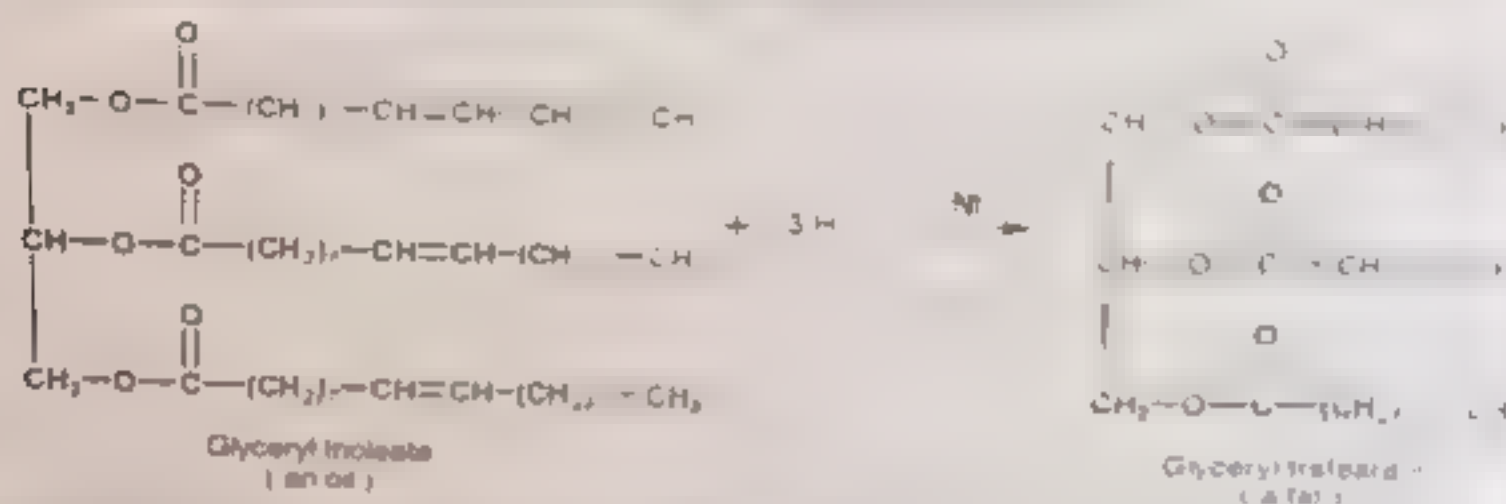
- Saponification is the hydrolysis of triglycerides by alkalis.
- Glycerol is produced along with sodium or potassium salt of fatty acids. These sodium and potassium salts are called soaps.

**(3) HARDENING OF OILS**

- The unsaturated triglycerides are liquids at room temperature. They are called oils.
- They can be saturated by passing hydrogen in them in the presence of metal catalysts. So, the triglycerides are converted into a semisolid triglyceride.

CH # 21 Biochemistry

- This reaction is used commercially to harden the vegetable oil for the margarine
- These hardened



Exercise Q3 (b). What is the nutritional importance of Lipids?

NUTRITIONAL IMPORTANCE OF LIPIDS

- Lipids play three major biochemical roles:
 - As a storage
 - As components of membranes
 - As messengers (signaling molecules)
- A major role of lipids in nutrition is energy storage.
- Since unsaturated, saturated and trans fats all provide about 9 calories per gram, protein with 4 calories per gram.
- Even though fish oil is healthy, it does not necessarily cause a heart attack.
- Our body also needs fat from your diet to be able to absorb and use the fat-soluble vitamins: vitamin A, vitamin D and vitamin E.

ESSENTIAL LIPIDS

- Some nutrients are essential in diet for good health. These are not prepared in body.
- The essential lipids are polyunsaturated fats called omega-6 and omega-3 fats. These fats are used for hormone synthesis, cell membrane structure and healthy brain and vision. They may help lower blood cholesterol levels.
- The omega-6 fatty acids can be obtained from vegetable oils and nuts.
- Omega-3 fatty acids are also in flaxseed, walnuts and fatty fish.

NON-ESSENTIAL LIPIDS

- Monounsaturated fatty acids are not essential in the diet because our body can synthesize them.
- They may help reduce risk for heart disease.
- They are in olive oil, peanuts and avocados.
- You do not need to get saturated fat, trans fat or cholesterol in your diet, and these lipids raise cholesterol levels in your blood.
- Saturated fat is in fatty meats and cheese, palm and coconut oil and butter.
- Trans fat is in partially hydrogenated oils in processed and fried foods, while cholesterol is fatty acids.

Information

Our bodies make about 2 g of cholesterol per day, and that makes up about 85% of blood cholesterol. The other about 15% comes from dietary sources.

FUNCTIONS OF LIPIDS

Some other functions of lipids are

- tissues reconstruction;
- nervous system organization;
- increases and assures a normal function of the skin;
- antibodies formation,
- good function of endocrine glands (thyroid);
- water metabolism,

QUICK QUIZ-4

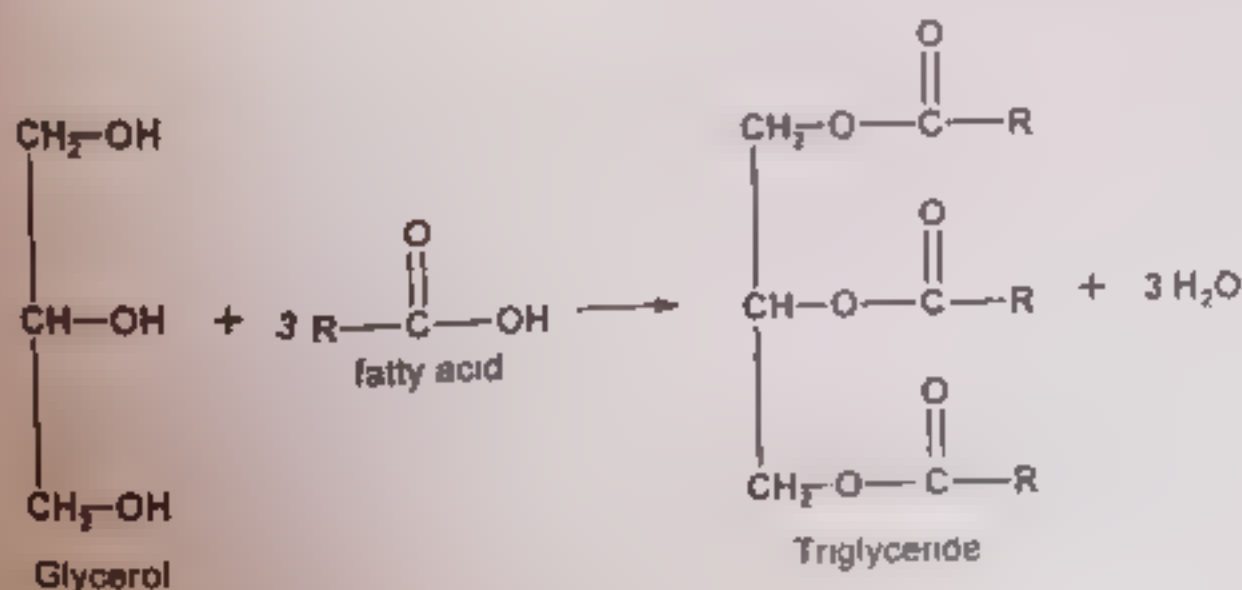
What are lipids? Shortly explain the only property that all the lipids have in common.

Naturally occurring organic compounds of animals and plants origin which are soluble in organic solvents are called lipids.

All lipids are hydrophobic. This is the one property they have in common. This group of molecules includes fats and oils, waxes, phospholipids, steroids like cholesterol and some other related compounds.

What are triglycerides? Draw its structure

Fats and oils are made from two kinds of molecules: glycerol and three fatty acids joined by dehydration synthesis. Since there are three fatty acids attached, these are known as triglycerides.



Explain briefly the structure of lipids.

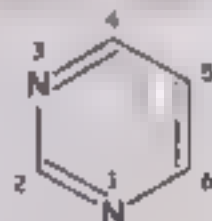
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NITROGENOUS BASES

Quick Quiz-5 (2) Differentiate purines and pyrimidines.

Pyrimidines

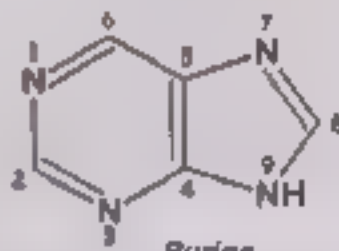
- There are three pyrimidine bases.
- Each consists of a 6-membered ring containing both nitrogen and carbon atoms.
- Two pyrimidines Thymine and Cytosine are found in DNA.
- RNA also contains two pyrimidines but they are Cytosine and Uracil.



Pyrimidine

Purines

- The purines are made from two heterocyclic rings of carbon and nitrogen.
- In purines a 6-member and a 5-member ring are fused.
- There are two purines, Adenine and Guanine.
- These are found in both DNA and RNA.



Purine

PHOSPHATES

- The addition of one or more phosphate groups to a nucleoside makes it a nucleotide.
- The nucleotide consists of a base-sugar-phosphate unit.
- These units on polymerization form DNA.

Differences between DNA and RNA

They differ in following ways.

- The sugar in RNA is ribose while the sugar in DNA is 2-deoxyribose.
- Four different bases are found in DNA: cytosine (C), thiamine (T), adenine (A), and guanine (G).
- In RNA thiamine does not occur and its place is taken by uracil (U).
- DNA is nearly always double stranded, while RNA is usually single stranded.
- DNA is used to store information while RNA is used to transfer information.

QUICK QUIZ-5

1) Write the names of structural components of DNA and RNA.

Both DNA and RNA are polymers of nucleotides.

The nucleotide consists of one sugar, one nitrogenous base, and at least one phosphate.

Sugar: In DNA, it is deoxyribose sugar and in RNA it is ribose sugar.

Nitrogen bases: In DNA, four nitrogenous bases are: Adenine, Guanine, Cytosine, and Thiamine.

In RNA, four nitrogenous bases are: Adenine, Guanine, Cytosine, and Uracil.

Phosphate: The phosphate is similar in both DNA and RNA.

2) Differentiate purines and pyrimidines.

Page 409

3) Which purines are present both in DNA and RNA?

Two purines are present in both DNA and RNA: Adenine (A) and Guanine (G).

SOURCES OF IMPORTANT MINERALS

Exercise Q3 (a) Describe four important minerals and their sources.

CALCIUM

Calcium is important to bone growth and formation, blood clotting and nerve and muscle functioning.

Sources:

Calcium is obtained from milk, cheese, egg yolk, beans, nuts, cabbage etc.

Deficiency:

A deficiency may result in arm and leg muscles spasms, softening of bones, back and leg cramps, brittle bones, rickets, poor growth, osteoporosis, tooth decay, and mental depression.

IRON

- Iron is an essential mineral.
- Its major function is to combine with protein and copper in making hemoglobin. The hemoglobin is present in the blood and carries oxygen from the lungs to the tissues throughout the body.

Sources:

Iron is obtained from red meat, egg yolk, whole wheat, fish, spinach and milk etc.

Deficiency:

A deficiency may result in weakness, fatigue, pallor of the skin, constipation and anemia.

PHOSPHORUS

- Phosphorus is after calcium the second most abundant mineral in the body.
- It is a principal mineral of bones and teeth.
- It is involved in most metabolic actions in the body, including energy production, growth and contraction of the heart muscle.

Sources: Phosphorus is obtained from egg yolk, cheese, milk, cabbage etc.

Deficiency: A deficiency is unusual but may have symptoms ranging from muscle weakness, fatigue, anxiety, numbness, skin sensitivity and changes in body weight.

ZINC

- Zinc is vital to immune resistance, wound healing, digestion, growth, muscle function, taste and smell and maintaining normal Vitamin A levels and usage.
- Zinc can be found in almost every cell of the body and serves as an essential for many body processes.

Sources: We get zinc from Oyster, red meat, chicken, beans, nuts etc.

Deficiency: A deficiency may result in poor growth, acne-like rash, hair loss, diarrhea, delayed sexual maturation, impotence, sterility, eye lesions, loss of appetite, reduced sense of taste, poor wound healing, reduced resistance to infections, mental confusion, nausea and anemia.

BIOLOGICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF MINERALS

(A) IMPORTANCE SIGNIFICANCE OF IRON

The primary role of iron relates to the ability of red blood cells to transport oxygen.

Some functions of iron are mentioned below:

Fatigue

- To prevent fatigue, iron is needed by the body to make hemoglobin, which carries oxygen to the cells.
- It is also needed for adenosine triphosphate production for proper cell function.

Exercise

- Iron is lost through sweat and through excretion in the urine and feces.
- Studies indicate that 34% of female runners and 8% of male runners have iron deficiency.

Pregnancy

- Iron is needed for proper placenta development.
- It is also needed for the production of red blood cells.
- Studies estimate that up to 50% of pregnant women have iron deficiency.

Pediatric

- Iron is essential during the first eight months of life.
- The effects of anemia may be associated with developmental delays in both motor and cognitive areas.

Treatment Duration

- Up to six months to restore low iron stores, its sufficient quantity in the body.
- When iron deficiency is left untreated, it can lead to conditions like heart disease.

Metabolic Processes

- Iron plays an important part in the metabolic processes of the animal.
- The function of iron in the body is limited almost exclusively to the synthesis of hemoglobin.
- It is present in some enzymes that catalyze reactions of carbon metabolism.
- In human body, the richest organs in iron are liver and spleen.
- In smaller amount it is also present in bones, muscle, and kidney.

(B) IMPORTANCE SIGNIFICANCE OF CALCIUM

Occurrence in Human

- Calcium is the most common mineral in the human body.
- It is present in the body in almost the same relative abundance as in the earth's crust.
- There are six stable isotopes of calcium, calcium-40 is the most common and most abundant (99.003%).

Importance

- The integrity of the system depends critically on vitamin D status. If there is a deficiency of vitamin D, its calcemic action leads to a decrease in the ionised calcium and secondary hyperparathyroidism. This is why experimental vitamin D deficiency leads to osteoporosis.
- Approximately 99% of total body calcium is in the skeleton and teeth and 1% is in the extracellular fluid.
- Calcium has four major biological functions:
 - (i) Structural as stores in the skeleton
 - (ii) Electrophysiological - carries charge during an action potential across the cell membrane
 - (iii) Intracellular regulator, and

(iv) As

IMPORTANCE SIGNIFICANCE OF PHOSPHORUS

Occurrence in Human

- Phosphorus is present in the body.
- There is over 1% of the body weight is composed of phosphorus.
- It is found in complex organ.
- The calcium phosphate is
- Phosphorus compounds are
- phosphate are added to foods

Importance

- The main function of
- It plays an important protein for the growth, n
- It is also crucial for the
- Phosphorus works with
- It also assists in the contraction of the heart and in nerve

IMPORTANCE SIGNIFICANCE OF ZINC

- Zinc is the most omnipresent of a
- More than a hundred specific
- If zinc is removed from the
- Studies in individuals with a
- These include impairments of
- Acrodermatitis enteropathica
- Loss of zinc through gastric
- body
- Considerable amount of
- resorbed and this process
- Other routes of zinc excretion

SOCIETY, TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE

Glycogen - A store house

Glycogen is reserved food material that store energy due to lack of glucose. the glycogen reconverts to ATP

Hibernating Animals and Reserve Food

Large amount of fat is store in the body of some hibernating animals. Their activities slow down. They use this fat as reserved food

COMPLEX CARBOHYDRATES WHICH PROVIDE LUBRICATION TO THE ELBOW AND KNEE:

- Glucosamine, glucosaminoglycans or proteoglycan lubrication to elbow and knee
- Glucosamine ($C_6H_{13}NO_5$) is an amino sugar. It is a building cartilage and lubricating joints. It is a precursor for glycosaminoglycans and for glycosaminoglycans
- Glucosamine has been shown to help keep our joints healthy. It is a naturally occurring nutrient and a group and a sugar molecule (glucose)

- Over time even the cartilage is damaged.
- This is because the cartilage is made of a matrix of collagen and proteoglycans. The proteoglycans are made of a core protein and many small sugar molecules called disaccharides. The disaccharides are made of glucose and galactose. The glucose is linked to the galactose by a β -1,3-glycosidic bond. The galactose is linked to the core protein by a β -1,3-glycosidic bond. The core protein is linked to the disaccharides by a β -1,3-glycosidic bond. The disaccharides are linked to the core protein by a β -1,3-glycosidic bond.

1. LUCOSAMINOGLYCANS (CAGs)

These are the most abundant molecules containing a repeating disaccharide unit. CAGs have negative charge.

- **Chondroitin sulphate** D.G. Keratan sulphate Gal + GlcNAc
- **GAGs** have unique properties. They are large molecules. Because of high viscosity and elasticity of joints especially in knee and elbow. On the other hand, they are also found in the connective tissues.
- **Proteoglycans** (mucopolysaccharides) are formed of glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) bonded to each other. These are found in connective tissues.
- **Proteoglycans** can also be called joint grease. Proteoglycan appears to be a major component of synovial fluid for normal joint lubrication and function. (Synovial fluid is a lubricant) function of which is to serve as a lubricant in joints or tendon sheath.
- **Aggrecan** is one of the most important extracellular proteoglycan. To each aggrecan core protein, chains of chondroitin sulphate and keratan sulphate are covalently attached through the trisaccharide unit. They play an important role in hydration of cartilage of joints. They give cartilage its gel-like property and provide resistance to deformation.

FIBROUS PROTEINS FROM HAIR AND SILK

- Fibrous proteins consist of elongated molecules having one or more polypeptide chains in the form of a rope.
 - Secondary structure is most important in them.
 - They are insoluble in aqueous media, a property due to a high concentration of hydrophobic amino acid residues both in interior of the proteins and on its surface.
 - They are non-crystalline and are elastic in nature.
 - Their characteristic feature is regular repeating pattern.
 - They play structural or supporting role in the body.
- Examples: are silk fiber, keratin (of nails and hair), myosin (in muscle cells), fibrin of blood clot.

INSULIN - A PROTEIN HORMONE WHOSE DEFICIENCY LEADS TO DIABETES MELLITUS

Structure:

- Insulin is a 51 amino acid peptide hormone that is produced exclusively by pancreatic beta cells.
- F. Sanger was the first scientist who determined the sequence of amino acids in insulin.
- After 10 years of careful work, he concluded that insulin is composed up of 51 amino acids in two chains, one alpha chain and one beta chain.
- The alpha chain contains 21 amino acids.
- The beta chain contains 30 amino acids. Both chains are held together by disulphide bridges. There are two inter-chain disulphide bridges and one intra-chain disulphide bridge in the alpha chain.
- The molecule weight of insulin is 5808.

function.

- Insulin hormone is central in regulating carbohydrate and fat metabolism in the body.
- It causes the cells in liver, muscles and fat tissue to take up glucose from the blood.
- In the liver and skeletal muscles, glucose is stored as glycogen while in adipocytes it is stored as triglycerides.
- Insulin stops the use of fat as energy source. When blood glucose level falls below a certain limit, the body begins to use stored sugar as an energy source through gluconeogenesis.
- As a central metabolic control mechanism, it serves as a signal as a control signal to other body systems (such as amino acids uptake by body cells).
- In addition, it has several other anabolic effects throughout the body.
- Insulin is used medicinally to treat some forms of diabetes patients.

ROLE OF MINERALS IN THE BODY

- Minerals act as cofactors for the enzyme reactions. Enzymes are catalysts for reactions. All cells require enzymes to work and function. They give us our vitality.
- They maintain the pH balance within the body.
- Minerals actually facilitate the transfer of nutrients across cell membranes.
- They maintain proper nerve conduction.
- Minerals help to contract and relax muscles.
- They help to regulate our bodies' tissue growth.
- Minerals provide structural support for the body.

There are two categories of minerals essential within the body, macro-minerals and micro-minerals. There is no one mineral deficiency. They all must be maintained in balance within the body.

MACRO-MINERALS

- Calcium
- Chloride
- Phosphorous
- Sodium
- Potassium
- Sulfur
- Magnesium

MICRO-MINERALS (OR TRACE MINERALS)

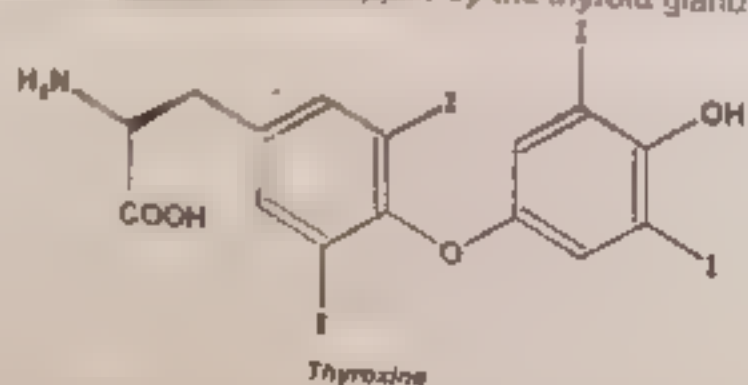
- Iron
- Boron
- Chromium
- Iodine
- Manganese
- Molybdenum
- Selenium
- Silicon
- Copper
- Cobalt
- Rubidium
- Germanium
- Lithium
- Zinc
- Vanadium

IR

CALCIUM

FLUORINE

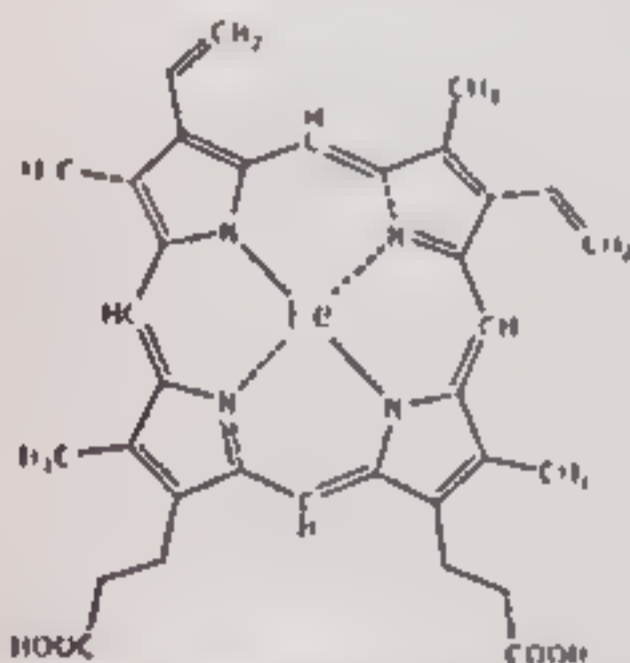
IODINE



Thyroxine

- Most environmental iodine occurs in seawater
- People living far from the sea are at particular risk of deficiency
- Salt fortified with iodide (typically 20ug/g) helps ensure adequate intake 100ug/day
- Deficiency is rare in areas where iodized salt is used but common world wide
- Iodine deficiency develops when iodide intake is less than 20ug/day
- In mild or moderate deficiency the thyroid gland hypertrophies to concentrate iodine in itself resulting goitre which is an enlargement of the thyroid gland visible as a swelling of front of neck
- Excessive iodine consumption can lead to thyrotoxicosis a condition resulting from high concentrations of thyroid hormones in the body which can result from eating foods that have high amounts of iodine such as kombu type kelp or seaweed

- Iron (Fe) is a component of hemoglobin, myoglobin, and many enzymes in the body.
- Heme iron, contained mainly in animal products is absorbed much better than non-heme iron, which accounts for over 85% of iron in the average diet.
- However, absorption of non-heme iron is increased when it is consumed with animal protein and vitamin C.
- The Recommended Daily Allowance (RDA) of iron is 8 milligrams for men and postmenopausal women.
- Iron deficiency, which may be caused by improper vegan or ovo-lacto vegetarian diets.
- Chronic bleeding may also cause iron deficiency. Iron may accumulate in the body when a person is given repeated blood transfusions or takes an overdose of iron supplements.
- Excess iron is toxic and can damage the intestines and other organs, as well as cause vomiting and diarrhea.



Heme, a constituent of hemoglobin

MAGNESIUM

- Magnesium (Mg) has several important metabolic functions in the production and transport of energy.
- It is also important for the contraction and relaxation of muscles.
- Magnesium is involved in the synthesis of protein, and it assists in the functioning of some enzymes.
- Most dietary magnesium comes from nuts, cereals, and dark green, leafy vegetable which are rich in chlorophyll.

MANGANESE

- Manganese (Mn) is necessary for healthy bone structure and is a component of several enzyme systems including manganese-specific glycosyltransferases and phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase.
- Manganese is found in cereal and nuts.
- The adequate intake of manganese is 2 to 5 mg/day.

MOLYBDENUM

- Molybdenum (Mo) is a component of coenzymes necessary for the activity of xanthine oxidase, sulfite oxidase, and aldehyde oxidase.
- Sulfite oxidase catalyzes the transformation of sulfite to sulfate which is necessary for the metabolism of sulfur-containing amino acids, such as cysteine.
- Legumes such as lentils, beans, and peas are good sources of molybdenum.

POTASSIUM

- Potassium (K) is an essential electrolyte.
- In response to excess sodium intake.
- The adequate intake of potassium is 4700 mg for older person.
- Potassium is generally found in fruits and vegetables.
- Potassium from supplements or a salt substitute is consumed by individuals with chronic renal insufficiency.

SELENIUM

- Selenium (Se) is a part of the enzyme glutathione peroxidase from polyunsaturated fatty acids.
- Selenium is also a part of the enzyme thioredoxin reductase.
- Generally, selenium acts as an antioxidant that works with vitamin E.
- The deficiency of selenium causes Keshan disease and is a common cause of heart failure.
- The RDA for selenium is 70 micrograms per day.
- The tolerable upper level of selenium is 400 mcg/day for adults based on the risk of brittleness and early signs of chronic selenium toxicity.

SODIUM

- Sodium (Na) is usually consumed as table salt (Sodium Chloride, NaCl).
- The adequate intake of 1.5 grams per day with an upper limit of 2.3 grams per day, based on needs for sweat losses for individuals 8 years or older engaged in recommended levels of physical activity.
- Active people in humid climates who sweat excessively may need more than the adequate intake.

ZINC

- Zinc (Zn) is contained mainly in bones, teeth, hair, skin, hair, liver, muscle, leukocytes, and red blood cells.
- Zinc is a component of several hundred enzymes, including many nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NADH) dehydrogenases, RNA and DNA polymerases, and DNA transcription factors as well as alkaline phosphatase, superoxide dismutase, and carbonic anhydrase.
- Good dietary sources of zinc include mollusks such as oysters and cereals.

KEY POINTS

- Carbohydrates are the most abundant macromolecule on earth. They are of three types: monosaccharides, disaccharides, and polysaccharides.
- People eating a diet high in carbohydrates are less likely to accumulate body fat compared with those with a carbohydrate-high fat diet.
- Proteins are the most important class of biomolecules. They are major structural components of animals and human tissues. They are classified as a simple protein, conjugated proteins and derived proteins. They are actually polymers of Amino acids.
- Nucleoproteins act as the carrier of heredity from one generation to the other.
- Hemoglobin is a protein and carrier of oxygen. Some of the proteins act as hormones.
- Enzymes are biocatalyst and catalyze chemical reactions in living organisms. They are quite specific in their function. Their Activity depends upon temperature, substrate concentration and pH. They are protein in nature and are extensively used in food, brewing, paper industries.
- All lipids are hydrophobic. Fats are solid while oils are liquid at room temperature. They are insoluble in water but soluble in organic solvents such as diethyl ether, acetone, benzene etc.
- Some lipids are essential for our diet and some are non-essential.
- Nucleic acids are present in every living cell as well as in viruses. They have ability to reproduce, store and transmit genetic information. They are of two types DNA and RNA. Nucleotide is the structural unit of DNA and consists of a sugar, one nitrogenous base and at least one phosphate.
- Minerals are the nutrients and are as necessary as oxygen for life. They are constituents of teeth, bones, tissues, muscles and nerve tissues.
- Minerals are classified as major and trace minerals i.e. those required in appreciable quantity are major and those required in low quantity are trace.

EXERCISE

Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

Biochemistry covers the practical applications of

- (a) Medicine (b) Agriculture

Macromolecules are of how many types?

- (a) Three (b) Four

The general formula for Carbohydrates is:

- (a) $N_n(H_2O)_n$ (b) $P_n(H_2O)_n$

Most organic matter on earth is made up of

- (a) Carbohydrates (b) Lipids

The no. of Carbon atoms in Hexose is.

- (a) One (b) Four

The long chains of Amino Acids are called:

- (a) Oils (b) Polypeptides

Proteins are used in both forms of

- (a) Catabolism (b) Anabolism

What is TRUE about enzymes?

- (a) They make biochemical reaction to proceed spontaneously.
(b) They lower the activation energy of a reaction
(c) They are not very specific in their choice of substrates
(d) They are needed in large quantities

To what category of molecules do enzymes belong?

- (a) Carbohydrates (b) Lipids (c) Nucleic acids (d) Proteins

What is TRUE about cofactors?

- (a) Break hydrogen bonds in proteins (b) Help facilitate enzyme Action
(c) Increase activation energy (d) Are composed of proteins

Prosthetic groups are:

- (a) Required by all enzyme (b) Loosely attached with enzymes
(c) Proteinous nature (d) Tightly bound to enzyme

Lipids are generally defined in terms of

- (a) Solubility (b) Structure (c) Molality (d) Acid base

DNA and RNA are made up of:

- (a) Peptides (b) Nucleotides (c) Neutrons (d) Nucleotides

_____ of the human body weight is mineral matter?

- (a) 5% (b) 10% (c) 50% (d) 100%

_____ is needed for Vitamin C utilization.

- (a) Acid (b) Iron (c) Phosphorus (d) Calcium

The component of blood that carries oxygen in the body is.

- (a) Fats (b) Myoglobin (c) Hemoglobin (d) Vitamin A

Most RNA molecules are:

- (a) independent (b) Double Stranded (c) Single Stranded (d) Multiple Stranded

_____ are the major component of soap.

- (a) Fatty Acids (b) Palm Oils (c) Proteins (d) Nucleotides

The mineral, related with the formation of bones and teeth, is

- (a) RNA (b) Phosphorus (c) Iron (d) Sodium

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

(i) Ans: (d) All of these

Biochemistry covers medicine, agriculture, nutrition etc

(ii) Ans: (b) Four

Four main types of macromolecules are present in the body. They are carbohydrates, lipids, proteins and nucleic acids.

(iii) Ans: (c) $C_n(H_2O)_n$

The general formula for carbohydrates is $C_n(H_2O)_n$. That's why

(iv) Ans: (a) Carbohydrates

Most organic matter on earth is made up of carbohydrates.

such as carbohydrates e.g.

(v) Ans: (c) Six

The number of amino acids

is six

(vi) Ans: (d) Metabolism

Metabolism is the chemical

(ix) Ans: (d) Proteins

Enzymes are proteins

(xi) Ans: (a) Required by all enzymes

Prosthetic group is covalently

work for the enzyme

(xiii) Ans: (b) Nucleotides

DNA and RNA are polymers

consists of one sugar one phosphate

phosphate

(xiv) Ans: (d) Calcium

Calcium is needed for

(xvii) Ans: (c) Single Stranded

RNA molecules are single

double stranded

(xviii) Ans: (b) Phosphorus

The main function of phosphorus is formation of

and teeth. The calcium phosphate is the principal

bones and teeth

(vi) Ans: (b) Polypeptides

(viii) Ans: (b) They lower the activation energy of reaction

(x) Ans: (b) Help facilitate enzyme activity

(xii) Ans: (a) Solubility

(xvi) Ans: (a) 5 %

(xv) Ans: (c) Hemoglobin

(xviii) Ans: (a) Fatty Acids

Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

(i) **What do you understand by the word Biochemistry?**

Biochemistry is the branch of science concerned with studying the various molecules that occur and organisms with their chemical reactions.

Biology is the science of living organisms and chemistry is the science of atoms and molecules. Biochemistry is the science of the atoms and molecules in living organisms.

(ii) **Briefly state the functions of Carbohydrates**

The main functions of carbohydrates are given below.

- These are source of energy
- These are necessary for proper fat metabolism
- These are the only source of energy for the brain and nerve tissues
- Some carbohydrates support the growth of healthy bacteria in the intestines for digestion
- Some carbohydrates high in fibre helps prevent constipation and lowers the risk for cancer heart disease
- They are storehouse of energy. e.g. starch is the food stores in plants and glycogen in animals
- They build the structure of plants and animals as cellulose or pectin

Unit II: Biochemistry

Name the classes and sub-classes of Proteins

Proteins are classified into three types

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| (A) Simple Proteins. | e.g. Albumins, Globulins, Glutins, Hemins, Scleroproteins |
| (B) Conjugated proteins | e.g. Nucleoproteins, Mucoprotein, Glycoprotein, Phosphoprotein |
| (C) Derived proteins | e.g. Proteases, Pepsins, Penicillin, Pantothenic acid |

In a range of $0-35^{\circ}\text{C}$ the rate of reaction of an enzyme is proportional to temperature. Justify it

- When temperature rises to 35°C , the kinetic energy of the molecules increases, which increases the rate of the reaction. So reactions are accelerated.
- However, when temperature is raised well above 35°C , it causes the vibrations of atoms of enzyme. Thus, the globular structure of enzyme is destroyed, leading to a rapid decrease in the rate of enzyme action.

How does pH affect enzyme Activity?

- All enzymes work at their optimum pH.
 - Change in pH can affect the enzyme activity.
 - Every enzyme has its specific pH range.
- e.g. pepsin (working in stomach) is active in acidic medium (low pH)

Describe lock and key mechanism of enzyme action

In 1894, a German chemist, Emil Fischer proposed lock and key model.

According to this model, both enzyme and substrate possess complementary shapes. The substrate fits into the active site of the enzyme like a key fits into a lock. This model explains enzyme specificity.

e.g. lipase enzyme acts on lipids and converts them into fatty acids and glycerol. It cannot act on proteins.

What is the main use of enzymes in paper industry?

Enzymes break starch to lower its viscosity that aids in making paper.

Define cofactor and co-enzymes.

The non-protein part of enzyme is called co-factor or co-enzyme.

Without cofactor enzyme cannot perform its catalytic function.

Without cofactor enzyme cannot perform its catalytic function.

- Co-factors include inorganic ions and organic metallic molecules.
- Fe^{2+} ions are cofactor for chrome oxidase enzyme, etc.
- Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) is a co-enzyme.

Shortly explain the only property that all the Lipids have in common

Naturally occurring organic compounds that are insoluble in water and soluble in organic solvents are called lipids.

All lipids are hydrophobic. This is the one property they have in common. This group of molecules includes fats and oils, waxes, phospholipids, steroids (like cholesterol) and some other related compounds.

Explain the structural components of DNA and RNA

Both DNA and RNA are polymers of nucleotides.

The nucleotide consists of one sugar, one nitrogenous base, and at least one phosphate.

The nucleotide consists of one sugar, one nitrogenous base, and at least one phosphate.

Sugar: In DNA, it is deoxyribose sugar and in RNA it is ribose sugar.

Nitrogen bases: In DNA, four nitrogenous bases are Adenine, Guanine, Cytosine, and Thymine. In RNA, four nitrogenous bases are Adenine, Guanine, Cytosine, and Uracil.

Phosphate: The phosphate is similar in both DNA and RNA.

(xi) Define Lipids and state the difference between fat and oil

Naturally occurring organic compounds that are insoluble in water but soluble in organic solvents are called lipids. They are water-insoluble.

Fats	Oils
(1) They are solid at room temperature.	1 They are liquid at room temperature.
(2) They are saturated.	2 They are unsaturated.
(3) They are solid at room temperature.	3 They are liquid at room temperature.
4. They possess high melting point.	4 They possess low melting point.
(5) They have low degree of unsaturation.	5 They have high degree of unsaturation.

(xii) Briefly state how Vitamin D is formed in human body?

When ultraviolet light falls upon 7-dehydrocholesterol present naturally in the skin, it is converted into vitamin D. This process occurs to some extent, this material is synthesized in the liver.

(xiii) State the differences between the chemical structures of DNA and RNA

They differ in following ways

- The sugar in RNA is ribose while the sugar in DNA is 2-deoxyribose.
- Four different bases are found in DNA cytosine (C) thiamine (T), adenine (A) and guanine (G). In RNA thiamine does not occur and its place is taken by uracil.
- DNA is nearly always double stranded while RNA is usually single stranded.
- DNA is used to store information while RNA is used to transfer information.

(xiv) Briefly state why minerals are important for human life

- They are constituents of the teeth, bones, tissues, blood, muscle and nerve cells.
- Many of them act as catalysts for many biological reactions within the human body.
- They are necessary for transmission of messages through the nervous system, digestion, & metabolism.
- Vitamins cannot be properly assimilated without the correct balance of minerals. e.g. calcium is needed for vitamin "C" utilization etc.

(xv) Name different routes for the loss of Zinc from human body.

- Loss of zinc through gastrointestinal tract accounts for approximately half of all zinc eliminated from the body.
- Considerable amount of zinc is secreted through the biliary and intestinal secretions but most of it is reabsorbed.
- Other routes of zinc excretion include the urine and surface losses (desquamated skin, hair, sweat).

Q3: Give detailed answers for the following questions.

(i) Describe different classes of Carbohydrates.

Page 388

(ii) Explain the structure of Proteins.

Page 396

(iii) Briefly describe the factors that affect the Activity of enzymes.

Page 400

(iv) What is the nutritional importance of Lipids?

Page 406

(v) Explain the structures of Nucleic acids.

Page 409

(vi) Describe four important minerals and their sources.

Page 412

YOUR SKILLS

Marks: 85

30 Minutes

OBJECTIVE

Marks: 17

Over writing, cutting, erasing, using lead pencil will result in loss of marks.

Write the correct option i.e. A/B/C/D. Each part carries one mark.

Carbohydrates are Compounds

(a) carbonyl (b) polyhydric

Which of the following is not a carbohydrate

(a) ribose (b) glucose (c) mannose (d) formaldehyde

What is general formula of carbohydrates

(a) $C_n(H_2O)_{n+1}$ (b) $C_n(HO)_n$ (c) $C_nH_nO_n$

Which one of the following carbohydrates does not

(a) ribose (b) glucose (c) galactose (d) None

Which carbohydrate is present in grapes

(a) glucose (b) fructose

Which of the following is present in milk?

(a) galactose (b) lactose

One glucose molecule combine with

(a) sucrose (b) starch (c) lactose

Which one of the following is a polysaccharide

(a) cellulose (b) starch (c) both a & b

1 gram of fat contains approximately

(a) 4 kcal (b) 9 cal (c) 9 kcal

Macromolecules are of how many types

(a) 3 (b) 4 (c) 5

Prosthetic groups are

(a) Required by all enzymes (b) loosely bound (c) tightly bound (d) tightly bound or enzyme

Lipids are generally defined in terms of

(a) solubility (b) structure (c) Molarly (d) all of these

Minerals constitute

(a) 10 % (b) 100 % (c) 5 % (d) 50 %

... .. is part of enzyme glutathione peroxidase

(a) Zn (b) Se

... .. of iodide absorbed is trapped by thyroid gland

(a) 50 % (b) 70 % (c) 80 % (d) 100 %

Which one of the following is considered mineral for body

(a) iron (b) iodine (c) calcium (d) both a & c

Calcium has

(a) 7 (b) 9 (c) 6 (d) 11

SUBJECTIVE

Total Marks Section B and C 68

Section - B (Marks 42) 14 x 3 = 42

Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not exceed 3 to 6 lines

- (i) Define carbohydrates (3)
- (ii) All organic compounds which have general formula $C_n(H_2O)_n$ are not carbohydrates. Justify (2)
- (iii) Describe role of carbohydrates in living organisms (1)
- (iv) (a) Define monosaccharides. (2)
- (b) What are source of monosaccharides? (2)
- (v) (a) How monosaccharides are classified? (1)
- (b) What are polysaccharides (1)
- (vi) (a) Define disaccharides (2)
- (b) What are sources of disaccharides (2)
- (vii) (a) Define glycosidic linkage with example (1)
- (b) What is glycemic index (2)
- (viii) (a) Compare glycogen in starch (1)
- (b) Draw structure of Amylose (5)
- (ix) (a) What is chitin (1)
- (b) What is source of children (1)
- (x) (a) What are bacterial polysaccharides? (1)

- (b) What is role of bacterial polysaccharide in living organisms? (2)
- (i) (a) What are globulins. (2)
- (b) What is source of Gluten? (1)
- (ii) What are conjugated Proteins. (3)
- (iii) How quaternary structure of protein is formed? (3)
- (iv) (a) What is haemoglobin. (1)
- (b) Differentiate between Anabolism & Catabolism. (2)
- (v) (a) Describe Lock and Key model. (2)
- (b) What are enzymes. (1)
- (vi) (a) How does Induce - Fit Model describe mechanism of enzyme Action (1.5)
- (b) Enzymes are specific in their action. Justify. (1.5)
- (vii) (a) What is optimum temperature for enzyme? (1)
- (b) How does temperature affect enzymatic activity. (2)
- (viii) (a) What are inhibitors? (1)
- (b) Describe types of inhibitors. (2)
- (ix) (a) What is spring myelin? (1)
- (b) What are fatty acids? (2)
- (x) (a) What is saponification. (1.5)
- (b) What is meant by hardening of oil. (1.5)

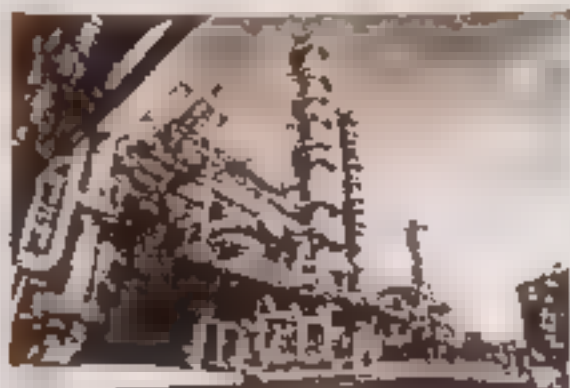
Section - C

Note Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. (2 × 13 = 26)

- Q3 (a) Discuss functions of Polysaccharides. (5)
- (b) Describe the structure of Proteins. (4)
- (c) How enzymes work as biocatalyst. (4)
- Q4 (a) Classify Proteins. (5)
- (b) What are the factors which affect enzymatic activity? (4)
- (c) How inhibitors decrease the enzymatic activity (4)
- Q5 (a) Explain the structure of Lipids. (5)
- (b) Differentiate between DNA & RNA. (4)
- (c) What is role of minerals in our body? (4)

CHAPTER # 22

INDUSTRIAL CHEMISTRY



INTRODUCTION:

Definition:

The branch of chemistry which applies physical and chemical procedures towards the transformation of natural raw materials and their derivatives to products that are of benefit to humanity is called Industrial Chemistry.

Development of Industrial Chemistry

- The scientists thought how can the chemical processes which are known on laboratory scale be applied on industrial scale. This thinking started the development of industrial chemistry.
- Chemistry knowledge was applied to furnish the recipe "experimenting with different substances and recipes". These recipes are now called chemical processes.
- Industrial chemistry keeps up with the progress in science and technology. It incorporates other emerging disciplines such as biotechnology, microelectronics, pharmacology, and materials science.
- It is also concerned with economics and the need to protect the environment.

The link between Classical and Industrial Chemistry

- The Classical Chemistry (organic, inorganic and physical chemistry) is very essential for advancing the science of chemistry. It discovers and reports new products, series and techniques.
- The Industrial Chemistry helps us to close the gap between classical chemistry, as it is taught in colleges and universities, and chemistry as it is practiced commercially.

Scope of Industrial Chemistry

- The scope of industrial chemistry therefore includes
 - ✓ The use of materials and energy in appropriate scale
 - ✓ Application of science and technology to enable human experiences the benefits of chemistry in different areas: food production, health and hygiene, safety, products for leisure, recreation and entertainment.

INTRODUCTION TO THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

The chemical industry can also be classified according to the type of main raw materials used and on type of principal products made.

(1) Industrial inorganic chemical industries

Industrial inorganic chemical industries extract inorganic chemical substances, make composites of the same and also synthesize inorganic chemicals.

(2) Industrial organic chemical industries.

- Heavy industrial organic chemical industries produce petroleum fuels, polymers, plastics, etc. and other synthetic materials, mostly from petroleum.
- Light organic industries produce specialty chemicals which include pharmaceuticals, dyes, pigments, paints, pesticides, soaps and detergents, cosmetic products and miscellaneous specialties.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE GLOBAL CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

- Normally a value is given to something according to its importance.
- Some things are of high value while others are of low value.
- The low valued products are needed to produce an article to make significant profit. This means that the raw materials are cheap and easily accessible. There is also an existing, relatively simple and easily accessible processing technology.
- To sell a large volume of product, there must be a large market. This brings stiff competition which makes the price to remain low.

COMMODITY CHEMICALS:

Commodity chemicals are defined as low-valued products produced in large quantities mostly in continuous processes. They are of technical or general purpose grade.

- The global chemical industry is founded on basic organic chemicals (BIC) and basic inorganic chemicals (BOC) and their intermediates. It is because they are produced directly from natural resources or immediate derivatives of natural resources. They are produced in large quantities.
- Some of the top ten BIC are sulphuric acid, nitrogen, oxygen, ammonia, ethylene, propylene, phosphoric acid and chlorine. The sulphuric acid is always number one. It is because it is used in the manufacture of fertilizers, polymers, drugs, paints, detergents and paper. It is also used in metal refining, metallurgy, and in many other processes. The top ranking of oxygen is due to its use in steel industry.
- Among top ten BOC are Ethylene and propylene. They are used in the production of many organic chemicals including polymers.
- BIC and BOC are referred to as commodity or industrial chemicals.

SPECIALTY CHEMICALS:

High-value adding involves the production of small quantities of chemical products for specific end uses. Such products are called specialty chemicals.

- These are high value-added products produced in low volumes and sold on the basis of a specific function.

Example:

Performance chemicals. These are high value products produced in low volumes and used in extremely low quantities. They are judged by performance and efficiency. Enzymes and dyes are performance chemicals.

Other Examples:

medicinal chemicals, agrochemicals, pigments, flavour and fragrances, personal care products, surfactants and adhesives.

- Specialty chemicals are mainly used in the form of formulations.
- Purity is of vital importance in their formulation. Thus highly valued pure chemicals must be prepared known as fine chemicals.

FINE CHEMICALS:

They are high value-added pure organic chemical substances produced in relatively low volumes and sold on the basis of exact specifications of purity rather than functional characteristics.

The raw materials for a product need to be very pure for the product to function as desired.

Examples:

Research chemicals, pharmaceutical ingredients etc.

The global market share for each type is roughly as follows:

Commodities = 80%

Specialties Chemicals = 18%

Fine Chemicals = 2%

Exercise Q9 (1) What is chemical industry? Discuss different raw materials used in this industry.
The chemical industry comprises the companies that produce industrial chemicals

RAW MATERIAL FOR THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

- All chemicals are derived from raw materials available in nature
- The price of chemicals depends on the availability of their raw materials
- Major chemical industries have therefore developed around the most plentiful raw materials
- The natural environment is the source of raw materials for the chemical industry

RAW MATERIALS FROM THE ATMOSPHERE

- The atmosphere is the field above ground level
- It is the source of air from which six industrial gases N_2 , O_2 , Ne , Ar , Kr and Xe are manufactured
- The mass of the earth's atmosphere is approximately 5×10^{21} tons. Therefore the supply of the gases is almost unlimited

RAW MATERIALS FROM THE HYDROSPHERE

- Ocean water is about 1.5×10^{21} litres.
- It contains about 3.5 percent by mass dissolved material
- Seawater is a good source of sodium chloride, magnesium and bromine

RAW MATERIALS FROM THE LITHOSPHERE

- The vast majority of elements are obtained from the earth's crust in the form of mineral ores, carbon and hydrocarbons.
- Coal, natural gas and crude petroleum are used as energy sources. These are also converted to thousands of chemicals.

RAW MATERIALS FROM THE BIOSPHERE

- Vegetation and animals contribute raw materials to the so-called agro-based industries
- Oils, fats, waxes, resins, sugar, natural fibres and leather are examples of thousands of natural products

QUICK QUIZ-1:

(1) Name those disciplines which play important role in industrial chemistry

The industrial chemistry has a strong link with the Classical Chemistry which includes organic, inorganic and physical chemistry. The classical chemistry discovers and report new products, routes and techniques which are then used in industrial chemistry. The industrial chemistry also includes disciplines such as, nuclear, biotechnology, microelectronics, pharmacology and material science.

(2) Define Industrial chemistry

The branch of chemistry which applies physical and chemical procedures towards the transformation of natural raw materials and their derivatives to products that are of benefit to humanity is called Industrial Chemistry.

(3) What is difference between organic and inorganic chemical industries?

- The organic chemical industry is based upon compounds of carbon. These may be of natural or synthetic origin or may be synthetic e.g. polymers, petrochemicals, dyes, paints, pesticides, soaps etc.
- The inorganic chemical industries are largely based upon compounds of elements other than carbon. They extract inorganic chemical substances, make composites of the same and use them in various industrial chemicals.



5. $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{16}$ $\frac{1}{16} \times \frac{1}{16} = \frac{1}{256}$ $\frac{1}{256} \times \frac{1}{256} = \frac{1}{65536}$

6. rank order assigned members and prizes

7 Get few natural products

Give examples of Basic organic chemicals

9 What do you mean by commonly chemicals

10) What is meant by performance chemicals?

These are high value products judged by performance and ef-

(11) *Case studies of different types of chemicals in global markets*

The greatest market share for each type is as follows, in percentage of consumption:

ME	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
ME	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
ME	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
ME	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
ME	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
ME	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	1																																																																																								

(7) Employment

During the 1980s, there has been a growing acceptance that process safety is a key element in preventing major accidents. The process safety management is also needed for all process associations in listed programmes to develop and provide process safety management guidelines. For example, these associations are in the United States: The Centre for Chemical Process (CCPS), the American Petroleum Institute (API) and the Chemical Manufacturers' Association (CMA).

PROCESS SAFETY MANAGEMENT REQUIREMENTS

- Process safety management is an integral part of the overall chemical processing facility safety programme
- An effective process safety management programme requires the leadership, support and involvement of top and senior facility management, supervisors, employees, contractors and subcontractors

ELEMENTS OF THE PROCESS SAFETY MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

There are a number of basic requirements which should be included in every chemical process safety management programme

(1) Process Safety Information

- Process safety information is used by the process team to define critical processes, materials and equipment
- It includes all available written information about process technology, process equipment, raw materials and products. It also includes the information about chemical hazards before conducting a process hazard analysis.
- Other critical process safety information is documentation relating to safety project reviews and design basis criteria

(2) Employee Involvement

- Process safety management programmes require employee participation in the development and conduct of process safety analyses and other elements of the programme
- Access to process safety information including process safety reports and process hazard analyses is usually provided to all employees and contractor employees working in the area
- Most industrialized nations require that workers be systematically instructed in the identification, nature and safe-handling of all chemicals to which they may be exposed

(3) Process Hazard Analysis

- After the process safety information is compiled, a thorough process hazard analysis is carried out
- It includes systematic multidisciplinary process hazard analysis appropriate to the complexity of the process.
- It is conducted in order to identify, evaluate and control the hazards of the process
- Persons performing the process hazard analysis should be knowledgeable and experienced in relevant chemistry, engineering and process operations
- Each analysis team normally includes at least one person who is thoroughly familiar with the process being analysed and one person who is competent in the hazard analysis methodology being used

(4) Management of Change

- Chemical process facilities should develop and implement programmes which provide for the revision of process safety information, procedures and practices as changes occur
- Such programmes include a system of management authorization and written documentation for changes to materials, chemicals, technology, equipment, procedures, personnel and facilities that affect each process.

(5) Operating Procedures

- Chemical processing facilities must develop and provide operating instructions and detailed procedures to workers.
- Operating instructions should be regularly reviewed for completeness and accuracy (and updated or amended as changes occur) and cover the process unit's operating limits

(6) Safe Work Practices

- Chemical process facilities should implement hot work and safe work permit and work order programmes to control work conducted in or near process areas
- Supervisors, employees and contractor personnel must be familiar with the requirements of the various permit programmes. These include permit issuance and expiration and appropriate safety, materials handling and fire protection and prevention measures.

(7) Employee Information and training

- Chemical process facilities should use formal process safety training programmes for new and re-assigned and new supervisors and workers.
- The training provided for chemical process operating and maintenance supervisors and workers should be comprehensive

QUICK QUIZ-2:

(1) What are requirement of process safety management?

An effective process safety management system requires:

(2) How employees should be involved in safety management programme?

- Employees should be involved in the development of the safety management system.
- Employees should be involved in the implementation of the safety management system.
- Employees should be involved in the monitoring and evaluation of the safety management system.

(3) What is analysis technique?

Each analysis technique involves a different way of analysing and one person may use more than one technique.

(4) What is role of management of change in process industries?

- Chemical process industries are subject to frequent changes in process safety.
- Such changes may be due to new technologies, new materials, or changes in operating conditions.

Exercise Q3 (ii). What are dyes? How are they classified on the basis of structure?

DYES

A dye is a coloured compound, normally used in solution, which is capable of being fixed to a fabric.

The dye is usually

exposed to sunlight (ultra

violet) but the colour is lost when it is washed with soap.

- The dye color is due to the presence of a chromophore.
- Its fixing property is due to the presence of basic auxochromic groups such as OH, SO₃H, NH₂, etc.
- The polar auxochrome makes the dye water-soluble and binds the dye to the fabric by interacting the oppositely charged groups of the fabric structure.

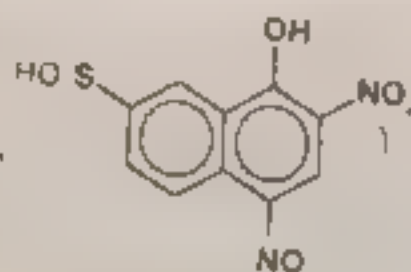
CLASSIFICATION OF DYES BY STRUCTURE

Dyes are classified according to the type of chromophores present in their structures. This method of classification includes the following main classes:

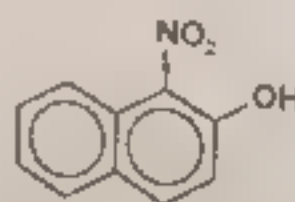
(1) NITRO AND NITROSO DYES:

The NO₂ and NO groups are chromophores in this class of dyes.

Examples:



Naphthalene Yellow S



Mordant Green 4

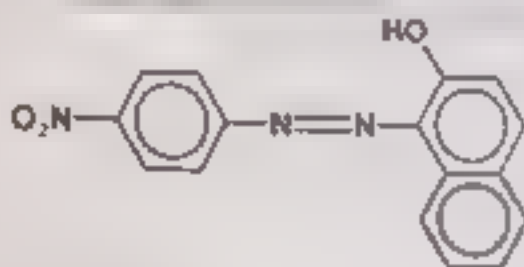
Industrial Chemistry

AZO DYES:

- The azo dyes contain one or more azo groups, $N=N$, as the primary chromophore
- The common auxochromes are NH_2 , NR_2 , OH , SO_3H etc
- Azo dyes form the largest and most important group of synthetic group of synthetic dyes. They are highly colored
- They can be prepared by diazotising an aromatic amine to produce diazonium salt. It is then coupled to a compound series. Thus, azo dyes can be produced with almost any color.

Examples

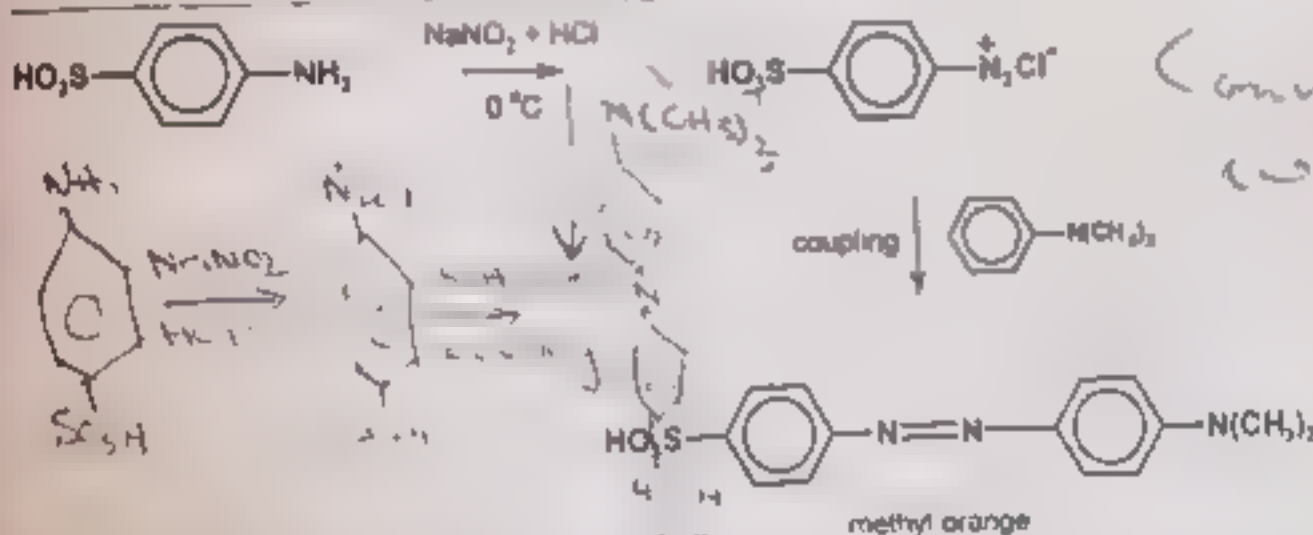
a) Para Red



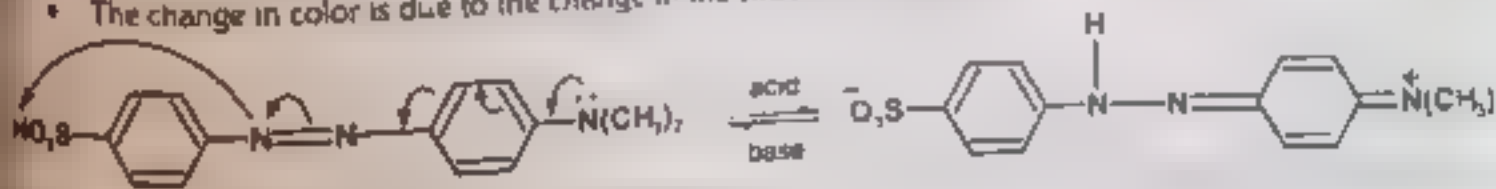
- It was the first azo dye to be prepared.
- Para red is obtained by the reaction of diazotized p-nitroaniline with β -naphthol on fabric itself.

b) Methyl Orange

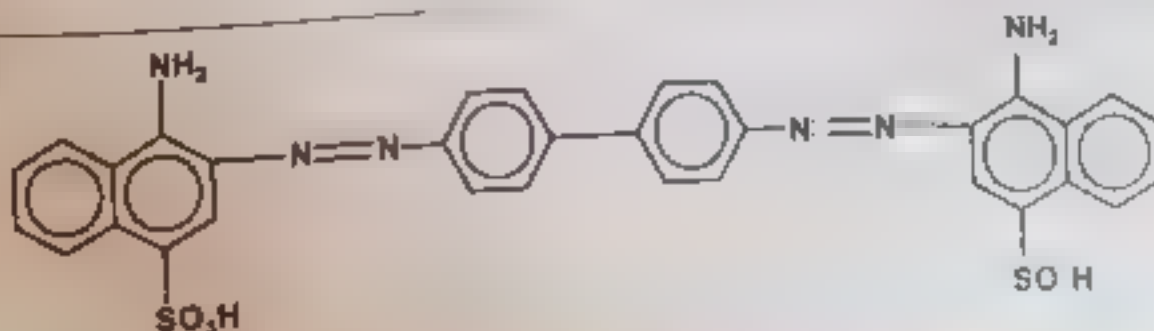
- Methyl orange is obtained from sulphanilic acid by the following steps



- Methyl orange imparts orange color to wool and silk.
- However the color is not fast to sunlight or washing
- It is a valuable indicator for acid-base titrations because it gives yellow color in basic solution and red color in acid solution.
- The change in color is due to the change in the structure of the ions



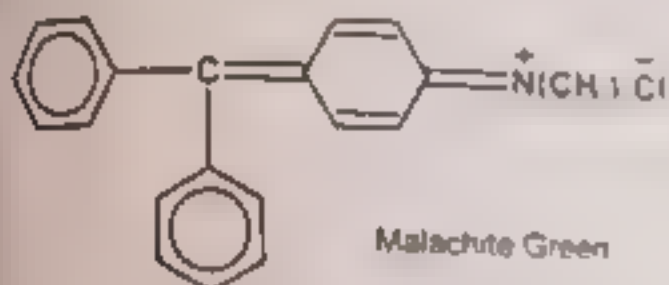
c) Congo Red



TRIARYLMETHANE DYES:

- In triarylmethane dyes, a central carbon is bonded to three aromatic form (the chromophore)
- The auxochromes are $-NH_2$, $-NR_2$ and $-OH$ Example:

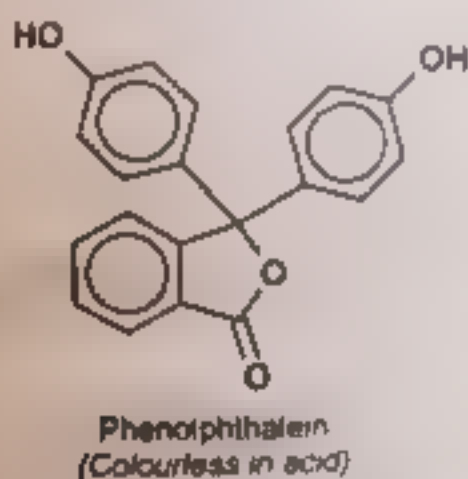
Malachite Green:



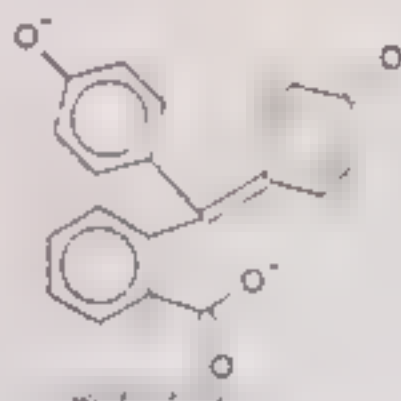
- Malachite green has a deep green-blue color.
- Although the color fades in light, malachite green is used as a dye.

Phenolphthalein:

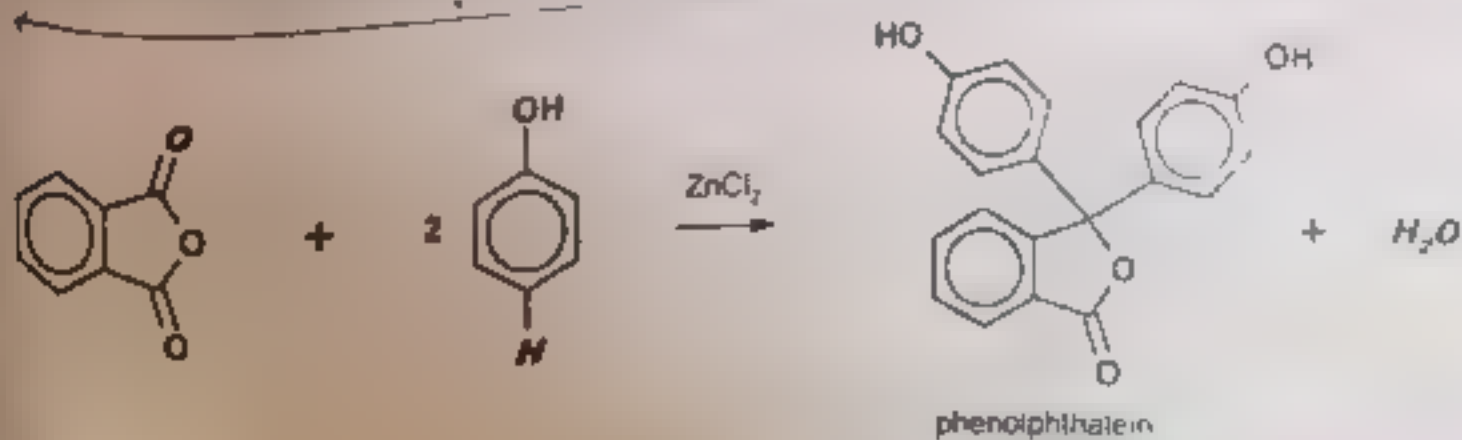
- It is also a triarylmethane dye but it is colorless in acid and shows red color in base.



base
⇌
acid

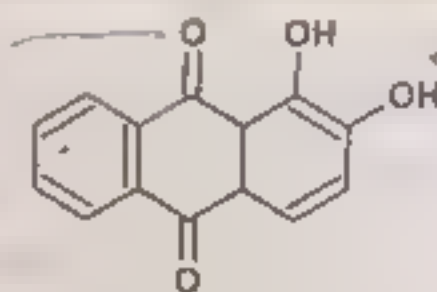


- Phenolphthalein is prepared by heating phthalic anhydride in the presence of anhydrous zinc chloride at 120°C .



(4) ANTHRAQUINONE DYES:

- The para quinoid chromophore is present in these anthracene type dyes
- Alizarin is a typical anthraquinone dye.

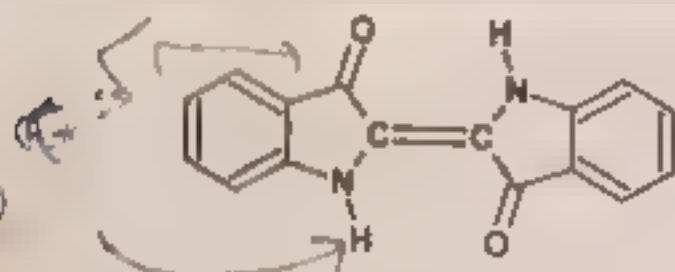


Alizarin

- Alizarin forms ruby red crystals which dissolve in alkali to give purple solutions
- It is used to dye wool and cotton

(5) INDIGO DYES:

- Indigo is an example of the type of dyes which contain carbonyl chromophore



Indigo

- It is a dark blue crystalline compound, insoluble in water
- It is used for dyeing cotton by the Vat Process

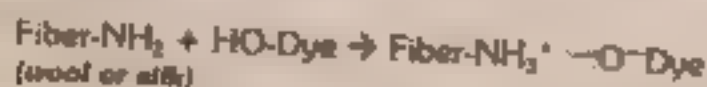
Exercise Q3 (iii) What do you know about dyes? How are they classified on the basis of application?

CLASSIFICATION OF DYES BY METHODS OF APPLICATION

- The chemical classification of dyes is of interest to the chemist but the dyer is concerned mainly with application of dyes to fabrics
- The method used for application in a particular case depends on the nature of both the dye and the material to be dyed
- The dyes are often classified on the basis of technique employed for their application

(1) DIRECT DYES:

- These can be applied to a fabric by direct immersion in a water solution of the dye
- A direct dye contains acidic or basic auxochrome which combines with the opposite polar group present in the chemical structure of the fiber.
- Wool and silk are readily dyed by this method
- Martius Yellow a typical direct dye has the acidic auxochrome -OH which interacts with the amino group of wool or silk



Exercise Q3 (iv) Write a note on
(a) Vat Dyes
(b) Mordant Dyes

(2) VAT DYES:

- These dyes are insoluble in water. However on reduction with sodium hydrosulphide in a vat they become colorless soluble compound. This compound has a great affinity for cotton and other cellulose fibers

Unit 12: Industrial Chemistry

12.1

Federal Board Part II

- The cloth is soaked in the solution of a colorless compound.
- As a result, the colorless compound is oxidized with oxidants now bound to the fabric.
- Indigo is a good example of a vat dye.

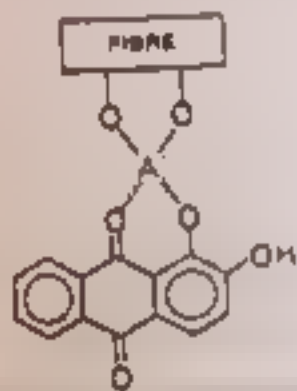


- Indigo blue has auxochromes $-OH$ which bind the dye fast to the cellulose fiber that contains hydroxyl groups by hydrogen bonding.

Exercise 12.1 Write a note on
(a) Vat Dyes
(d) Mordant Dyes

3) MORDANT DYES:

- This class of dyes has no natural affinity for the fabric and are used to it with the help of salts e.g. oxides of aluminum or chromium. These salts are called Mordants.
- A fiber such as cotton is first treated with a mordant and then with the dye.
- The mordant forms an insoluble coordination complex between the dye and binds the two.
- The insoluble complex compound appears in the form of lakes that are light and washing.
- The mordant dyeing is the most suitable for wool and nylon.
- Alizarin is an example of a mordant dye.



* Auxochrome is a functional group of atoms with non-bonding electron pairs which affect the color of the chromophore.



4) AZOIC DYES (INGRAIN DYES):

- In this method of dyeing, the water insoluble azo dyes are used.
- The cloth is first soaked in the solution of a coupling reagent.
- It is then immersed in the solution of an auxochromes.
- The azoic dyeing is particularly suitable for cotton and nylon.

5) DISPERSE DYES:

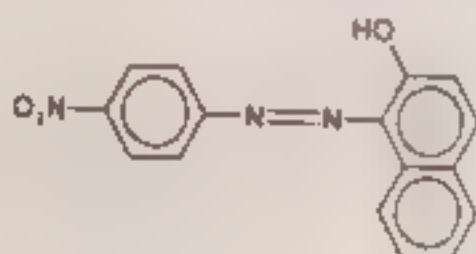
- These dyes are insoluble in water but can be dispersed in a colloidal form in water.
- The fabric is immersed in the colloidal dispersion of the dye.
- The fine dye particles are absorbed into the crystal structure of the fabric.
- Disperse dyes are used with modern synthetic fabrics such as nylon, rayon, polyester and cellulose acetate.

* Chromophore is a molecule responsible for its color.

QUICK QUIZ-3

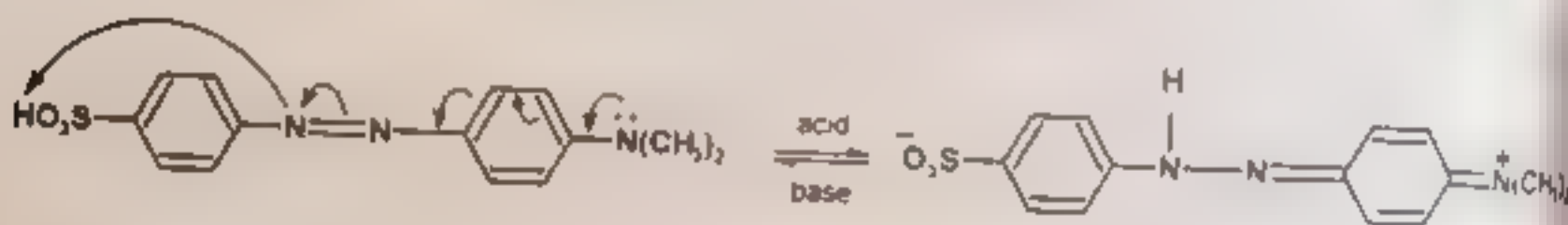
(1) Which one is first azo dye?

Para red is the first azo dye prepared by the reaction of diazonised phenol with itself



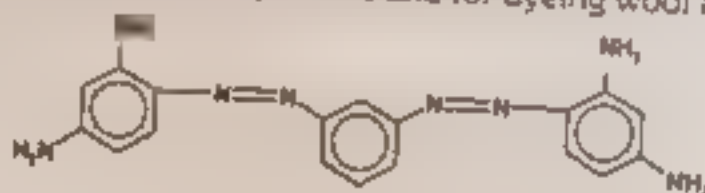
(2) What is the color of Methyl orange (i) in acidic medium (ii) in basic medium

- Methyl orange is used as indicator for acid base reactions. It is because it gives yellow color in basic solution and red color in acid solution.
- The change in color is due to the change in the structure of the ions



(3) Which dye is used in boot polish and in dyeing wool and cotton?

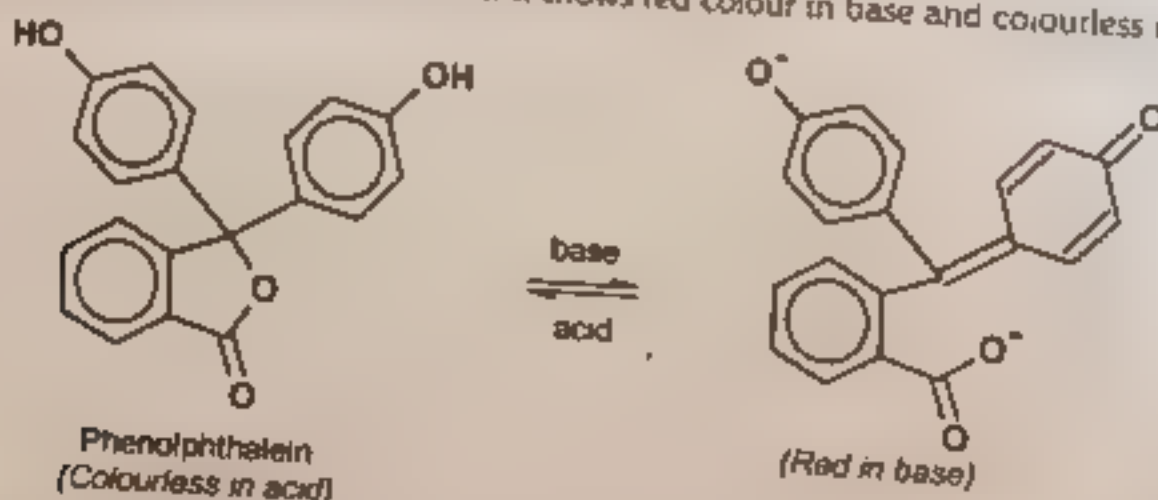
Bismarck brown is a brown dye used in boot polishes and for dyeing wool and cotton



Bismarck Brown

(4) What is the color of phenolphthalein in (i) acidic medium (ii) basic medium

- It is used as indicator in acid-base titrations. It shows red colour in base and colourless in acid



Phenolphthalein
(Colourless in acid)

(Red in base)

Exercise Q3 (u) What is meant by Pesticides? Describe its types in detail

PESTICIDES

A pesticide is any chemical which is used by man to control pests. The pests may be insects, weeds, nematodes, snails, slugs, etc. Therefore, insecticides, fungicides, herbicides, etc., are all types of pesticides.

TYPES OF PESTICIDES

(1) INSECTICIDES

Insecticides are chemicals used to control insects.

- Often the word "insecticide" is confused with the word "pesticide". It is just one of many types of pesticides.
- An insecticide may kill the insect by touching it or it may have to be swallowed to be effective.
- Some insecticides kill both by touch and by swallowing.
- Insecticides called **Systemics** may be absorbed, injected or fed into the plant or animal to be protected. When the insect feeds on this plant or animal, it ingests the systemic chemical and is killed.

(2) MITICIDES AND ACARICIDES

Miticides (or Acaricides) are chemicals used to control mites, such as those that bite humans and ticks.

- The chemicals usually must contact the mites or ticks to be effective.
- These animals are so many and small, that great care must be used to completely cover the area on which the mites live.
- Miticides are very similar in action to insecticides and often the same pesticide kills both insects and mites.

(3) FUNGICIDES

Fungicides are chemicals used to control the fungi which cause molds, rots, and plant diseases.

- All fungicides work by coming in contact with the fungus, because fungi do not "swallow" chemicals in the same sense.
- Therefore, most fungicides are applied over a large surface area to try to directly hit every fungus.
- Some fungicides may be systemic in that the plant to be protected may be fed or injected with the chemical. The chemical then moves throughout the plant, killing the fungi.

(4) HERBICIDES

Herbicides are chemicals used to control unwanted plants.

- These chemicals are a bit different from other pesticides. It is because they are used to control the growth of some plants, rather than to protect them.
- Some herbicides kill every plant they contact, while others kill only certain plants.
- It is of following types:
 - Nonselective herbicides:**
 - ✓ These are toxic to all plants.
 - ✓ These are often used when no plants are wanted in an area, e.g., nonselective herbicides can be used for cleaning under guardrails or for total control of weeds.
 - Selective herbicides:**
 - ✓ These kill some plants with little or no injury to other plants.
 - ✓ Usually selective types will kill either broadleaved plants (e.g., grass).
 - ✓ These are useful for lawns, golf courses or in areas with desirable plants.
 - ✓ Some very selective herbicides may kill only certain plants (e.g., weeds in lawns).

(5) RODENTICIDES

Rodenticides are chemicals used to control rats, mice, dogs, cats, etc.

- Chemicals which control
- They are usually applied

(6) NEMATOCIDES

Nematicides are chemicals used to control nematodes.

- They are usually applied

(7) MOLLUSCICIDES

Molluscicides are chemicals used to control snails and slugs.

- Bait is often used

(8) REPELLENT

A repellent is a pesticide that makes a site or food unattractive to a target pest.

- They are usually applied in the form of a spray or dust.
- Insect repellents are available as baits, sprays, and dusts.
- Vertebrate repellents are available as concentrates.
- They can be sprayed or painted on nursery crops and seeds. Repelling deer, dogs, birds, raccoons, etc.

QUICK QUIZ-4

(1) Differentiate between

(i) Pesticides and Insecticides

- A pesticide is any chemical which is used by man to control pests. The pests may be insects, plant diseases, fungi, weeds, nematodes, snails, slugs, etc. Therefore, insecticides, fungicides, herbicides, etc. are all types of pesticides.
- Insecticide is a type of pesticide. It is used to kill control insects.

(ii) Fungicides and herbicides

- Fungicides are chemicals used to control the fungi which cause molds, rots, and plant diseases.
- Herbicides are chemicals used to control unwanted plants.

(2) What do you understand by systemics?

Systemics are chemicals which are made to enter into the body system of living organisms by different ways. These may be absorbed, injected, or fed into the plant or animal to be protected. When the animal feeds on this plant or animal, it ingests the systemic chemical and is killed.

(3) How do herbicides differ from other pesticides?

These chemicals are a bit different from other pesticides. It is because they are used to kill or slow the growth of some plants, rather than to protect them.

4. Give different types of repellents

A repellent is a pesticide that irritates insects, e.g. insect repellents are a group of chemicals that repel biting and nuisance insects.

(5) What are molluscicides

Molluscicides are chemicals used

Usually the chemicals must be eaten by the mollusks in an area

PETROCHEMICAL

- The prefix 'petro' is derived from the Greek word 'petros' meaning 'petroleum'.
- Since 'petro-' is Ancient Greek for 'rock' and 'oil'. Therefore, the etymology of 'oleochemicals'.
- However, the term 'oleochemicals' is derived from plant oils.

Explanation

- Petrochemicals are chemicals derived from petroleum.
- Some chemical compounds are also obtained from other fossil fuels or renewable sources such as natural gas.



Exercise Q3 (vi) Describe the basic building block in petrochemicals technology.

TYPES/CLASSES OF PETROCHEMICAL RAW MATERIALS (BUILDING BLOCKS):

Petrochemical classes are

- Olefins including ethylene and propylene
- Aromatics
- Synthesis Gas

- Olefins and aromatics are the building blocks for a wide range of materials such as solvents, detergents and adhesives.
- Primary petrochemicals are divided into two main categories: olefins and aromatics.

(a) OLEFINS INCLUDING ETHYLENE AND PROPYLENE

- Olefins include ethylene, propylene and butadiene.
- At oil refineries olefins are produced by chemical cracking such as steam cracking and by catalytic reforming.
- Ethylene and propylene are important sources of many chemical and plastics products.
- Butadiene is used in making synthetic rubber.
- Olefins are the basis for polymers and oligomers used in plastics, resins, fibers, elastomers, lubricants and gels.

(b) AROMATICS

- Aromatics include benzene, toluene and xylenes.
- At oil refineries, aromatic hydrocarbons are mainly produced by catalytic reforming or similar processes.
- Benzene is a raw material for dyes and synthetic detergents.
- Benzene and toluene are raw materials for isocyanates.
- Manufacturers use xylenes to produce plastics and synthetic fibers.

(c) SYNTHESIS GAS

- Synthesis gas is a mixture
- Ammonia is used to make intermediate
- A very wide range of chemicals are produced from synthesis gas
- used in industry monomers so called
- From the monomers polymers and plastics are produced
- World production of ethylene is about 100 million tonnes
- of aromatic raw materials 70 million tonnes
- The largest petrochemicals industries are in the USA and Europe
- growth in new production capacity, especially in Asia
- There is a substantial inter-regional trade in petrochemicals

LIST OF SIGNIFICANT PETROCHEMICALS AND THEIR DERIVATIVES

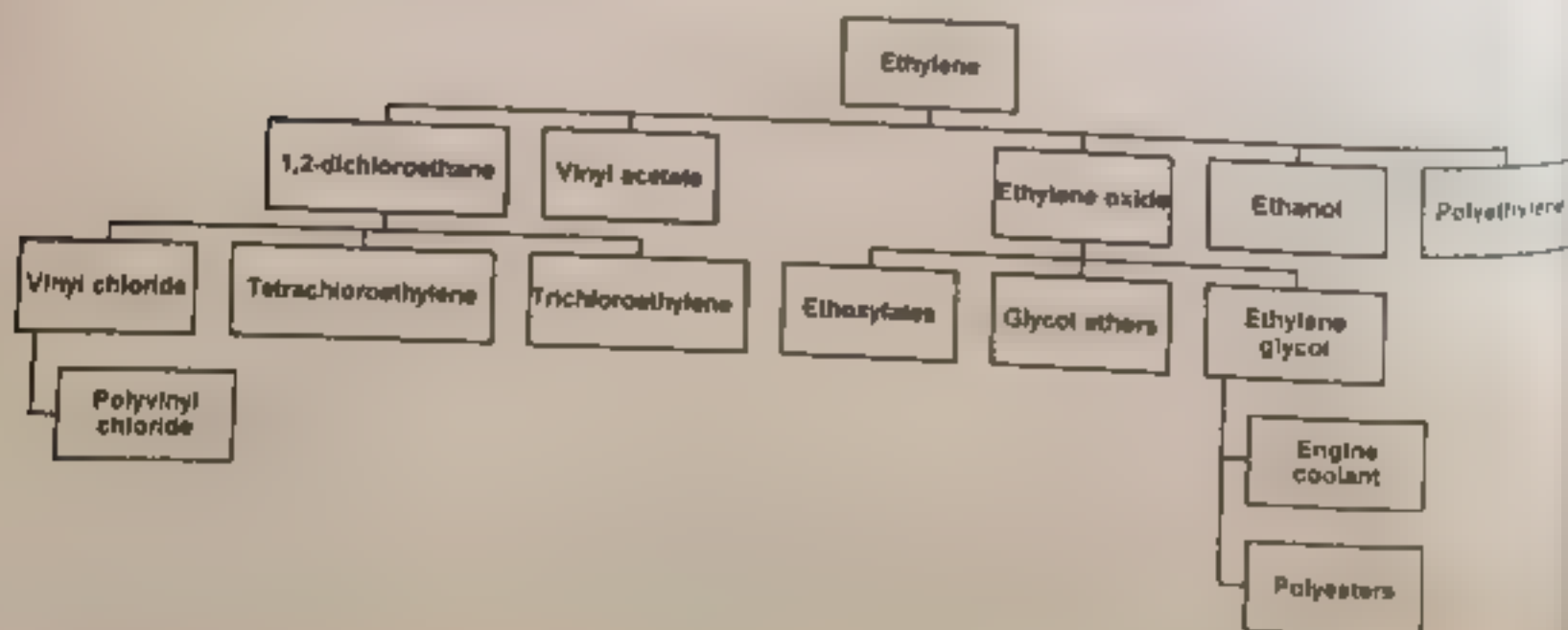
The following is a partial list of the major petrochemicals and their derivatives

Exercise Q2 (a) List different chemicals produced from ethylene

CHEMICALS PRODUCED FROM ETHYLENE

Ethylene. The simplest olefin used as a chemical feedstock and packaging material. It is used to prepare following substances

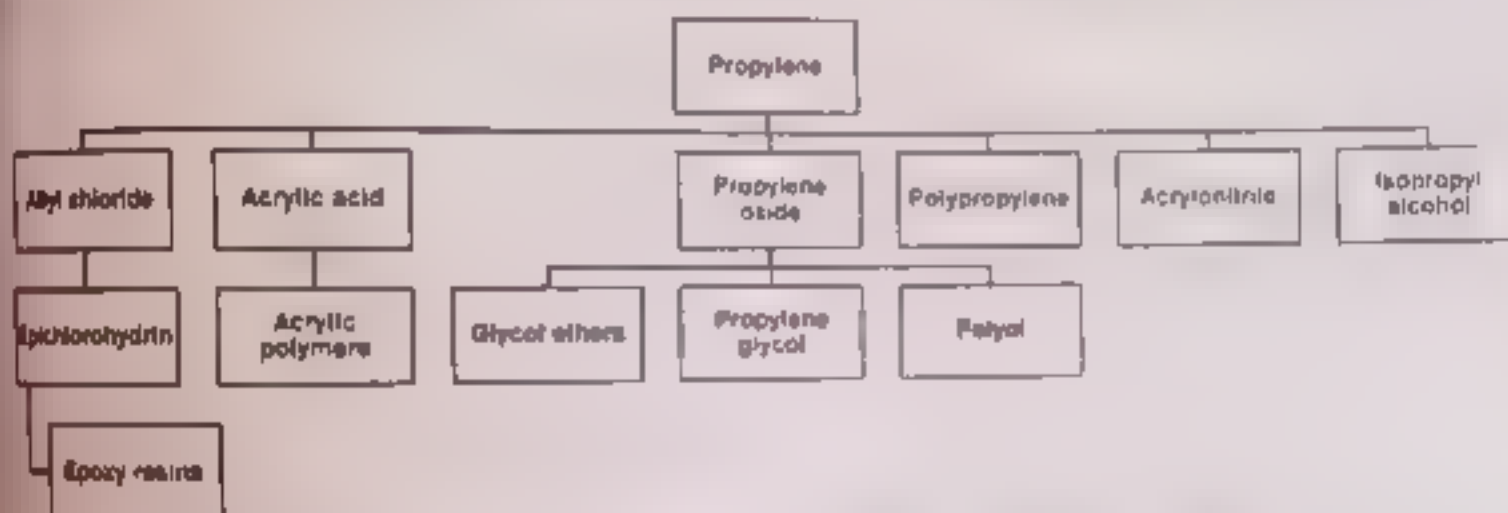
- Polyethylene:** polymerized ethylene
- Ethanol:** via ethylene hydration (chemical reaction adding water) of ethylene
- Ethylene oxide:** via ethylene oxidation
 - Ethylene glycol:** via ethylene oxide hydration
 - Engine coolant: ethylene glycol, water and inhibitor mixture
 - Polyesters: any of several polymers with ester linkages in the backbone, made from ethylene glycol and terephthalic acid
 - Glycol ethers:** via glycol condensation
 - Ethoxylates**
- Vinyl acetate**
- 1,2-dichloroethane**
 - Trichloroethylene:** also called perchloroethylene; used as a dry cleaning solvent and degreaser
 - Tetrachloroethylene:** also called perchloroethylene; used as a dry cleaning solvent and degreaser
 - Vinyl chloride:** monomer for polyvinyl chloride
 - Polyvinyl chloride (PVC): type of plastic used for piping, tubing, other things



CHEMICALS PRODUCED FROM PROPYLENE

Propylene It is used as a monomer and a chemical feedstock. It is used to prepare following substances

- (i) isopropyl alcohol - 2-propanol: often used as a solvent or rubbing alcohol
 - (ii) acrylonitrile - useful as a monomer in forming Orlon, ABS
 - (iii) polypropylene - polymerized propylene
 - (iv) propylene oxide
 - (a) polyol - used in the production of polyurethanes
 - (b) propylene glycol - used in engine coolant and aircraft de-ice fluid
 - (c) glycol ethers - from condensation of glycols
 - (v) acrylic acid: acrylic polymers
 - (vi) allyl chloride
 - (a) epichlorohydrin - chloro-oxirane; used in epoxy resin formation
- epoxy resins - a type of polymerizing glue from bisphenol A, epichlorohydrin, and some amines



CHEMICALS PRODUCED FROM BENZENE

Benzene - the simplest aromatic hydrocarbon

- (i) ethylbenzene - made from benzene and ethylene
 - (a) styrene made by dehydrogenation of ethylbenzene, used as a monomer
 - polystyrenes - polymers with styrene as a monomer
- (ii) cumene - isopropylbenzene - a feedstock in the cumene process
 - (a) phenol - hydroxybenzene, often made by the cumene process
 - (b) acetone - dimethyl ketone; also often made by the cumene process
 - (c) bisphenol A - a type of "double phenol" used in polymerization in epoxy resins and making a common type of polycarbonate
 - epoxy resins - a type of polymerizing glue from
 - polycarbonate - a plastic polymer made from bisphenol A and epichlorohydrin
 - (d) solvents - liquids used for dissolving materials, examples: benzene, toluene, xylene, ethanol, isopropyl alcohol, acetone
- (iii) cyclohexane - a 6-carbon aliphatic cyclic hydrocarbon sometimes used as a non-polar solvent
 - (a) adipic acid - a 6-carbon dicarboxylic acid which can be a precursor used as a co-monomer with a diamine to form an alternating copolymer form of nylon
 - (b) caprolactam - a 6-carbon cyclic amide
 - nylons - types of polyamides, some are alternating copolymers from dicarboxylic acid or derivatives with diamines

(d) nitrobenzene

(i) benzene

(ii) nitrobenzene

(iii) nitrobenzene

(iv) nitrobenzene

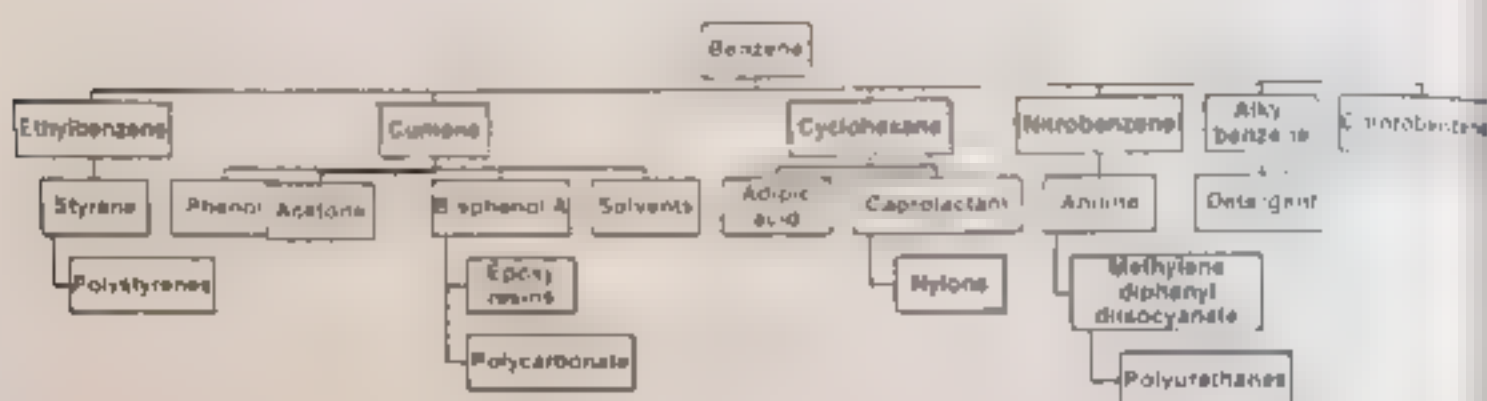
(e) alkylbenzene

(i) benzene

(ii) benzene

(iii) benzene

(f) chlorobenzene



Exercise Q2 (a) List different chemicals produced from ethylene

CHEMICALS PRODUCED FROM TOLUENE

Toluene: methylbenzene, can be a solvent or precursor for other chemicals

(i) benzene

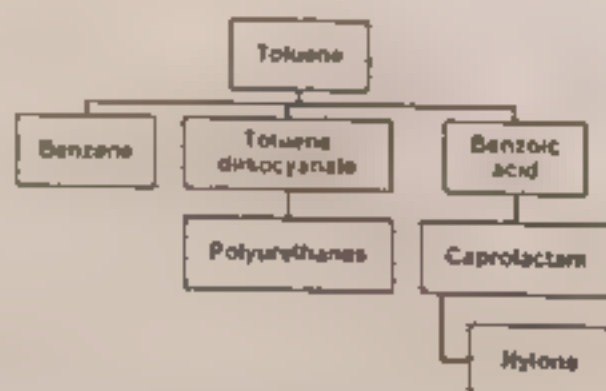
(ii) Toluene diisocyanate (TDI), used as co-monomers with diols or polyols to form polyurethanes or with di- or polyamines to form polyureas

(a) polyurethanes - a polymer formed from diisocyanates and diols or polyols

(iii) benzoic acid - carboxybenzene

(a) caprolactam

• Nylons



Chemicals produced from xylenes

Mixed xylenes - any of three dimethylbenzene isomers, could be a solvent but more often precursor chemicals

(i) ortho-xylene - both methyl groups can be oxidized to form (ortho-)phthalic acid

(a) phthalic anhydride

Unit 12: Industrial Chemistry

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(i) meta-xylene

(a) isophthalic acid

- alkyd resins
- Polyamide Resins
- Unsaturated Polyesters

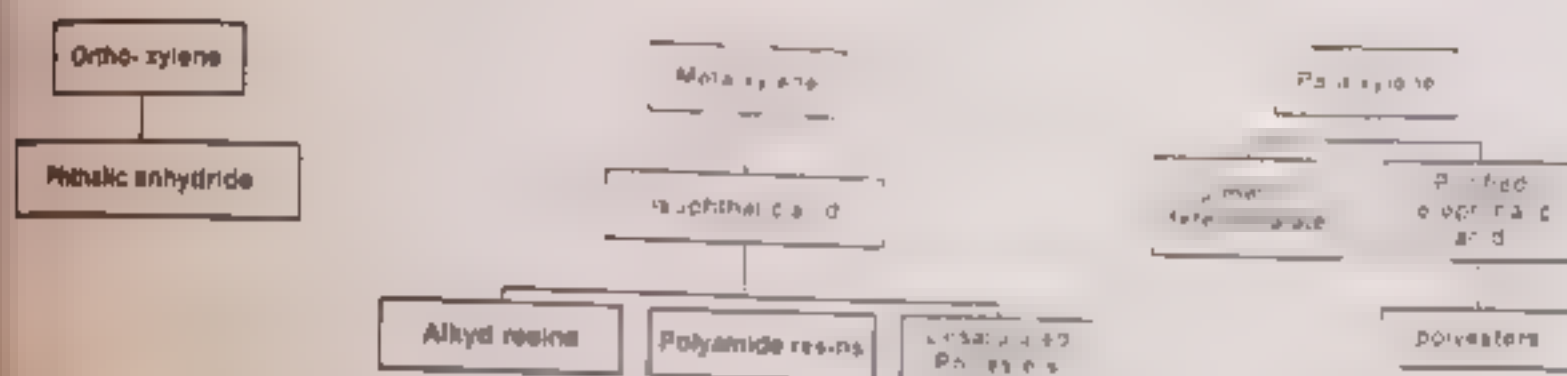
(ii) para-xylene - both methyl groups can be

(a) dimethyl terephthalate can be

- polyesters although there are also petrochemical products and so on

(b) purified terephthalic acid

- polyesters



QUICK QUIZ-5

(1) What do you mean by petrochemicals

Petrochemicals are chemical products derived from petroleum.

Three important classes of petrochemicals are

- Olefins including ethylene and propylene e.g. ethene, propene
- Aromatics e.g. benzene, toluene and xylenes
- Synthesis Gas e.g. a mixture of carbon monoxide and hydrogen

(2) What are classes of petrochemical raw materials

Three important classes of petrochemicals are

- Olefins including ethylene and propylene e.g. ethene, propene
- Aromatics e.g. benzene, toluene and xylenes
- Synthesis Gas e.g. a mixture of carbon monoxide and hydrogen

(3) What are important fractions of petroleum

Important fractions of petroleum are

Petroleum gas, Gasoline (Petrol), Naphtha, Kerosene oil, Diesel oil, Lubricating oil, Bitumen

(4) How does refining of petroleum carried out in Pakistan

The oil obtained from the oil fields of Dhulian, Khaur, Bakura, etc. is refined by the Pakistan Petroleum Fields Limited near Rawalpindi. The imported crude oil is refined by the Pakistan Petroleum Fields Limited near Rawalpindi.

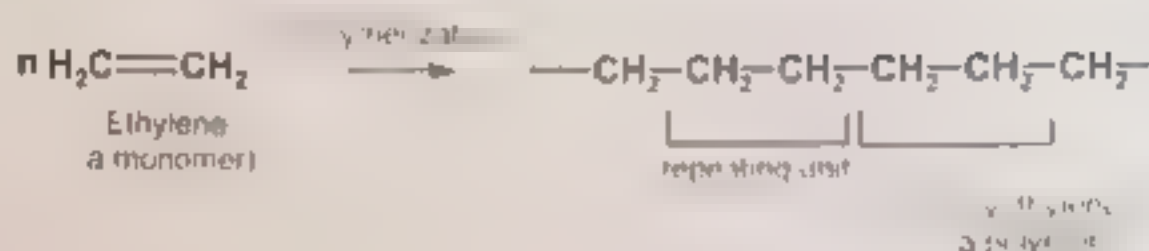
The main refineries of Pakistan are

- Attock oil refinery
- Pakistan oil refinery
- National oil refinery
- Pak-Arab refinery

SYNTHETIC POLYMERS

- Polymers are high molecular weight compounds.
- The repeating units are called monomers.
- The reaction by which monomers are joined together to form a polymer is called polymerization.

Example



The formation of polyethylene from ethylene is an example of addition polymerization.

- Polymers which are synthesized from only one kind of monomer are called homopolymers.
- Polymers which are prepared from more than one kind of monomer are called copolymers.

CLASSIFICATION OF POLYMERS

There are two main types of polymers: Addition polymers and Condensation polymers.

(i) ADDITION POLYMERS (CHAIN-GROWTH POLYMERS)

Addition polymers are formed by combination of alkenes monomers to produce a single huge molecule only.

- These reactions are catalyzed by peroxides or acids.
- The reactions require pressures of 1000 atmospheres at 2000°C.
- Much lower temperatures and pressures can be used with so-called Ziegler Catalysts like trialkyl aluminum and titanium tetrachloride in an inert solvent.

(a) POLYETHYLENE (POLYTHENE)

- Polyethylene has been produced commercially since 1943.
- It is obtained by polymerizing ethylene.

In chain-growth polymerization the monomers are added at one end of growing chain.



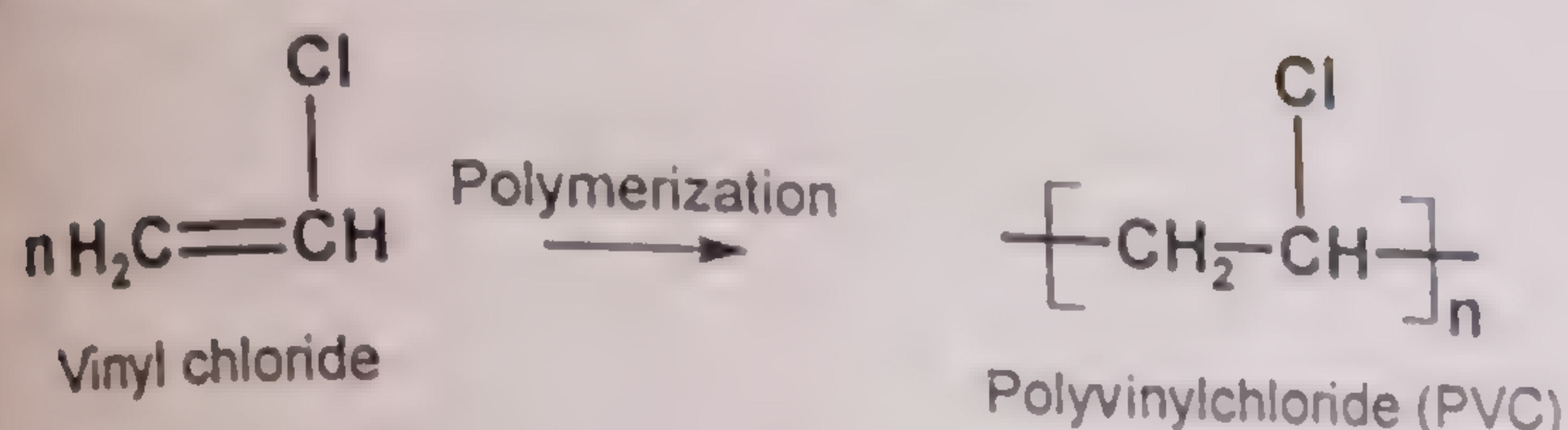
- Notice that the monomer (ethylene) contains a double bond and the polymer does not.
- The electrons of the monomer π bond have moved and are used to link one monomer unit to the next by sigma bonds as indicated by extended lines in abbreviated polymer formula.
- The backbone of the polymer consists of the carbon atoms that originally formed the double bonds.
- Nothing is lost. The monomers simply add to each other.

Uses

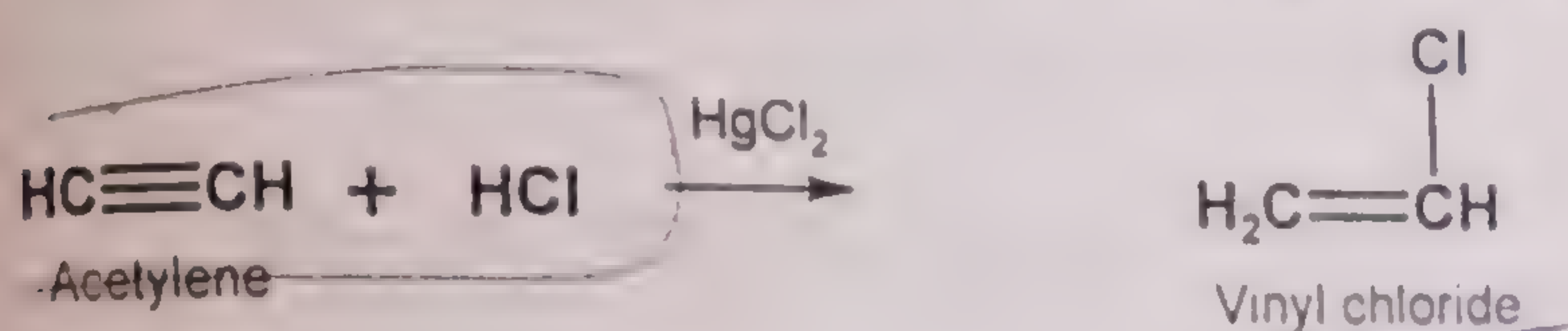
It is used in the manufacture of houseware such as buckets and dustbins, carpet backing, packing materials and cable insulation.

POLYVINYL CHLORIDE (PVC)

It is obtained by polymerizing vinyl chloride.



Vinyl chloride is obtained from acetylene by treatment with HCl in the presence of HgCl_2



Uses

PVC is used in the manufacture of imitation leather, floor covering, corrugated roofing material and gramophone records.

CONDENSATION POLYMERS (STEP-GROWTH POLYMERS)

Condensation polymers are formed by combination of monomers with the elimination of simple molecules such as H_2O or CH_3OH .

There are two main types of condensation polymers: Polyesters or Polyamides. The most common example

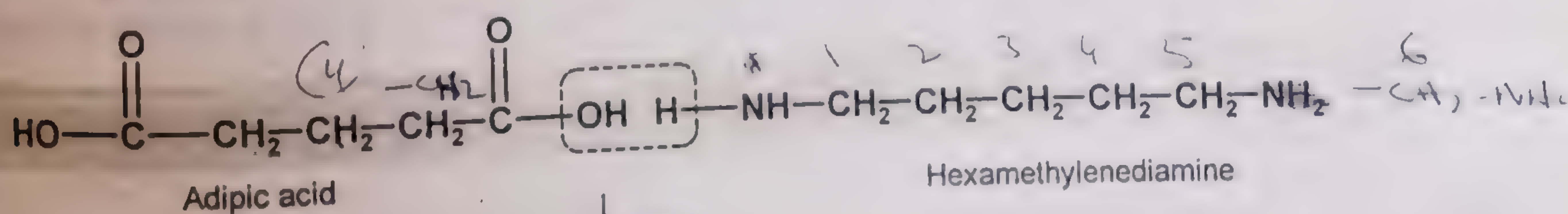
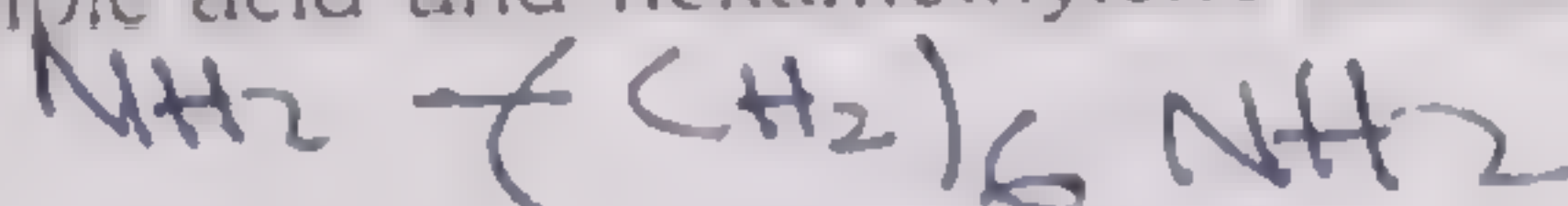
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Nylon-6,6

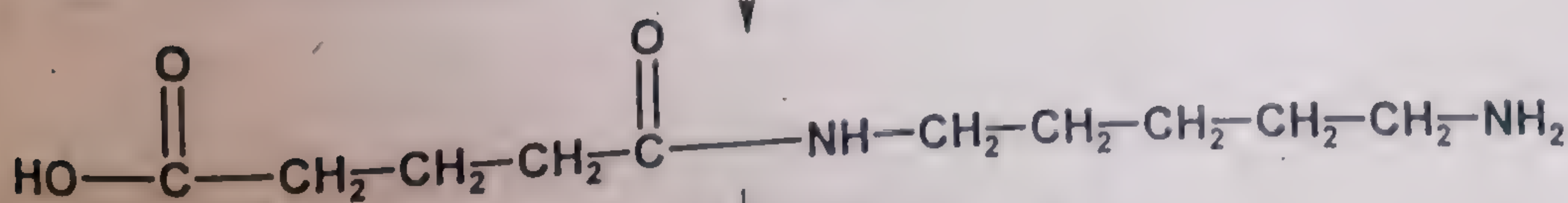
In step-growth polymerization, first bifunctional compounds react together to form dimer, trimer, tetramer etc. and finally at the end all these unit together to form a polymer.

- It is the most important polyamide.

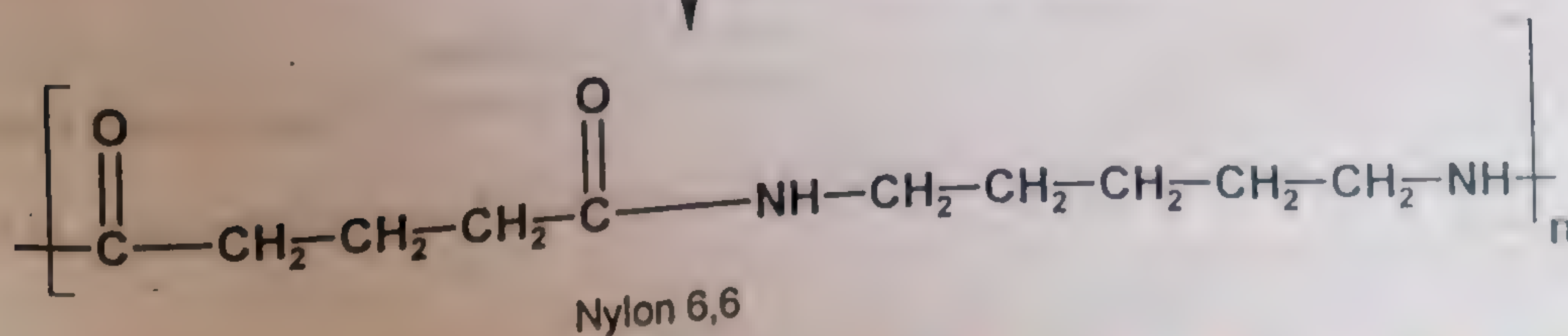
- It is obtained by heating adipic acid with hexamethylene diamine under nitrogen at 200°C .
- Nylon-6,6 derives its name from its starting materials, adipic acid and hexamethylene diamine, both of which have six carbons.

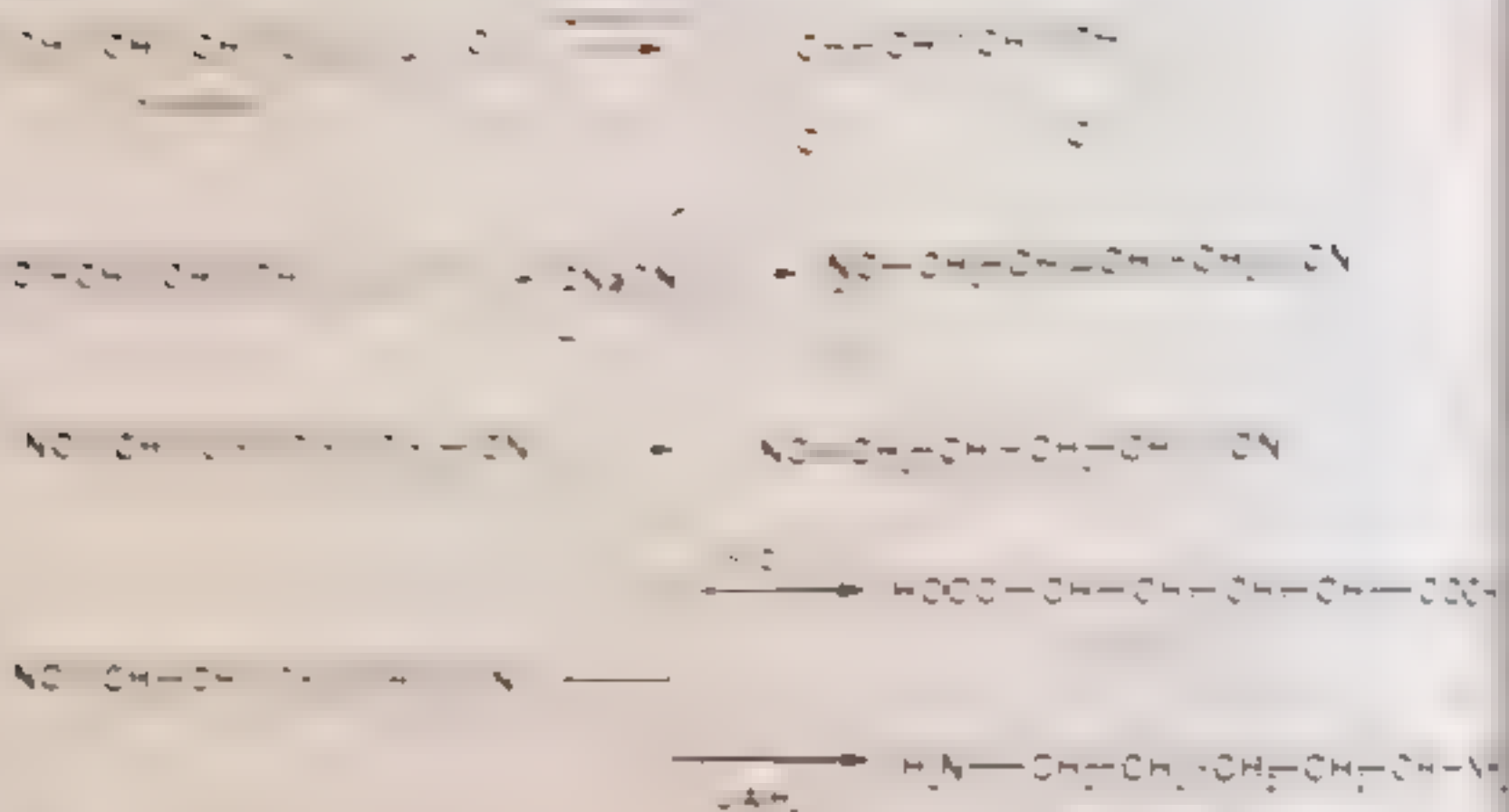


heat



Further reaction at each end





THIN FILM AND THERMOSETTING POLYMERS

QUICK QUIZ-6

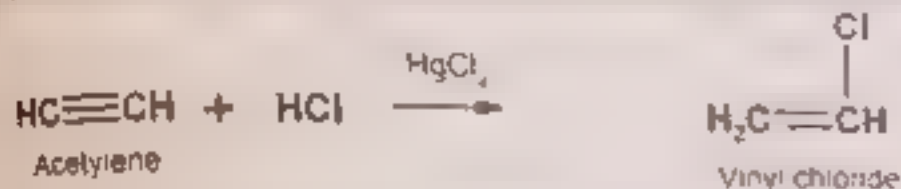
- What are used in the production of leather floor coverings?
 a) PVC
 b) Nylon-6,6
 c) Polyethylene
 d) Polystyrene
- What is the difference between addition and condensation Polymers?
 a) Addition polymerization involves the combination of monomers to produce a single huge molecule.
 b) Condensation polymerization involves the combination of monomers with the elimination of simple molecules like water.
 c) Addition polymerization involves the combination of monomers with the elimination of simple molecules like water.
 d) Condensation polymerization involves the combination of monomers to produce a single huge molecule.

Give difference between thermoplastic and thermosetting plastic

- A thermoplastic polymer is one which softens on heating and becomes hard on cooling e.g. Polyvinyl chloride (PVC).
- A thermosetting polymer is one which becomes hard on heating & cannot be softened by heating, e.g. Bakelite.

How vinyl chloride is prepared from acetylene

Vinyl chloride is obtained from acetylene by treatment with HCl in the presence of HgCl_2

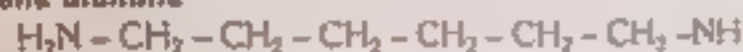


Write formula of

(i) adipic acid



(ii) hexamethylene diamine



Give use of Nylon-6,6

- Nylon-6,6 is developed as a synthetic fiber for the production of stocking and other wearing apparel.
- It is used to make fibers for clothing and carpeting, filaments for fishing lines and ropes, brushes and molded objects such as gears and bearings.

SOCIETY, TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE

DEVELOPMENT OF SYNTHETIC FIBERS

- Nylon is the first synthetic fiber.
- Synthetic fibers are made from synthesized polymers or small molecules.
- The compounds that are used to make these fibers come from raw materials such as petroleum based chemicals or petrochemicals. These materials are polymerized into a long chain chemical that bond two adjacent carbon atoms.
- Different chemical compounds will be used to produce different types of fibers.

Manufacturing of Synthetic Fibers: Melt-Spinning Process.

- There are several methods of manufacturing synthetic fibers but the most common is the Melt-Spinning Process.
 - It involves heating the fiber until it begins to melt then drawing out the molten fiber with tweezers as quickly as possible.
 - The next step is to draw the molecules by aligning them in a parallel arrangement. This brings the fibers closer together and allows them to crystallize and orient.
 - Lastly is Heat-Setting. This utilizes heat to permeate the shape and dimensions of the fabrics.
- In general, synthetic fibers are created by forcing, usually through extrusion, the molten polymer through or thrusting out to create objects of a fixed, cross-sectional profile (forming or various types of spinnerets) into the air, forming a thread.
- Before synthetic fibers were developed, artificially manufactured fibers were made from natural materials.

USES OF SYNTHETIC FINISHES

-
-
-
-
-
-
-
- Glass fibre
 - ✓
- Metal
 - ✓
 - ✓
 - ✓
- In the home industry
 - ✓
 - ✓
 - ✓
 - ✓
 - ✓ phenolic resin foam

COSMETIC CHEMISTRY

Introduction

- The global market for skincare and colour cosmetics exceeded 53 billion dollars in 2002
- The number of new products brought to market continues to expand exponentially
- Cosmetic chemists are always looking for new and exotic ingredients that improve skin appearance and health
- A vast amount of research is required to synthesize these products
- The latest edition of the Cosmetics Toiletries and Fragrance Association (CTFA) Dictionary lists more than 10,000 raw materials
- Every year hundreds of new ingredients are added to the list of those that have been used for centuries

Following are the important cosmetics

- (1) Nail Polish
- (2) Nail Polish Remover
- (3) Lipstick
- (4) Hair dyes

NAIL POLISH

BACKGROUND

- Nail polish and varnish or enamel is almost completely an invention of twentieth century technology. However other cosmetics have a history of hundreds or even thousands of years.

Industrial Chemistry

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- Nail coverings were not unknown in ancient times.
- The upper classes of ancient Egypt probably used some form of nail polish.
- Modern nail polish is sold in liquid form in small bottles.
- Within a few minutes after application, the polish dries to form a hard film.
- Generally a coating of nail polish may last for several weeks.
- Nail polish can also be removed mechanically by filing or by using a nail polish remover to break down and dissolve the polish.

Q3 (vii) Describe raw materials and manufacturing process of Nail Polish

RAW MATERIALS

There is no single formula for nail polish. The basic components include:

- (1) Film forming agents e.g. Nitrocellulose
- (2) Resins and plasticizers e.g. castor oil, acetone, acetic acids
- (3) Solvents e.g. Butyl stearate and acetate
- (4) Coloring agents e.g. "pearl" or "fish scale"

MANUFACTURING PROCESS

It includes following steps:

- (1) When properly and fully milled the mixture is then broken up into small chips for mixing with the solvent. The chips are made of stainless steel.

Location:

This step is performed in a special room or area designed to contain dust in an area with walls that will close in if an alarm sounds and prevent the rest of the structure.

- (2) At the end of the process, the mix is cooled slightly and then perfumes and moisturizers are added.
- (3) The mixture is then pumped into smaller, 55 gallon drums. The finished nail polish is pumped into explosion proof pumps and sent to the retail market.

NAIL POLISH REMOVER

Nail polish remover base commonly contains a mixture of two solvents: acetone and ethyl acetate. Acetone belongs to a group of organic molecules called ketones. It is also sometimes called 2-propanone. Ethyl acetate belongs to a group of organic molecules called esters. Ethyl acetate is ethyl ethanoate.

Interesting Information

Acetone is an organic liquid that is colorless, flammable and is miscible with water and nearly all other organic liquids.

QUICK QUIZ-7

- (1) Give composition of nail polish. The basic components include:
 - (a) Film forming agents e.g. Nitrocellulose

Q. 12 Industrial Chemistry

i. Resins and plasticizers

iii. Solvents

iv. Coloring agents etc.

2. What is use of plasticizers in nail polish?

3. In which material mixing of raw material of nail polish is preferred?

4. What is nail polish remover?

or state

5. Give composition of nail polish remover

- Acetone
- Ethyl acetate

acetone and ethyl acetate

LIPSTICK AND CHEMICAL COMPOSITION

- Lipsticks are simple composition however
- They are made up of ingredients—a waxy or fatty base, a dye
- There is no danger in the use of lipstick. In fact
- Lipstick is a cosmetic product

RAW MATERIALS AND COMPOSITION

The primary ingredients found in lipstick are

- Wax (The wax used usually involves some combination of three types beeswax, candle wax or more expensive carnauba wax,
- Oil (such as mineral, castor, lanolin, or vegetable oil)
- Alcohol
- Fragrance and pigment,
- Preservatives and antioxidants

Generally the composition by weight is

- Wax and oil make up about 60 percent of the lipstick
- Alcohol and pigment make up 25 percent
- Fragrance added to lipstick, make up 1% or less of the mixture

THE MANUFACTURING PROCESS

The manufacturing process comprises of three separate steps

- melting and mixing the lipstick
- pouring the mixture into the tube
- packaging the product for sale

Manufacture of Lipstick

Melting and Mixing

- The wax and oil are melted together in a pot.
- The alcohol and pigment are added to the mixture.
- The mixture is stirred until it is uniform.
- The mixture is then poured into a tube.
- The tube is then sealed and the lipstick is ready for use.

Setting

- The lipstick is then set in a mold.
- The lipstick is cooled and set.
- The lipstick then passes through a series of tests.

Labeling and Packaging

- After the lipstick is retracted a label is placed on the tube.
- Labels identify the brand and are approved by the FDA.
- The final step in the manufacturing process is packaging.

QUICK QUIZ-8

1. Give composition of lipstick

Generally, the composition by weight is

- Wax and oil make up about 60 percent of the lipstick.
- Alcohol and pigment make up 25 percent.
- Fragrance added to lipstick, make up 15 percent.

2. What type of wax is used as raw material of lipstick

The wax used usually involves some combination of expensive carnauba wax.

3. How many steps are involved in manufacturing of lipstick

The manufacturing process comprises of three separate steps

- (i) melting and mixing the lipstick
- (ii) pouring the mixture into the tube
- (iii) packaging the product for sale

4. Give percentage of alcohol and pigments in lipstick

Alcohol and pigment make up 25 percent by weight of the lipstick

HAIR DYE

HISTORY

1. Hair dye is one of the oldest known beauty preparations, and was used by the women of the ancient Egyptian, Greek, and Roman peoples all mention the use of hair color.
2. Early hair dyes were made from natural materials.
3. Rock alum, quicklime, and other minerals were used in many parts of the world.
4. Many different plant extracts were used to make hair dyes.
5. Today known plants as henna, indigo, and others are used to make shades of hair dye.
6. An extract of the flowers of the chamomile plant was long used in many modern hair preparations.
7. The bark, leaves, or nutshells of many trees were used to make hair dyes.
8. Other dyes were produced from walnut leaves or nut husks.

MODERN AGE

- Preparations such as these were the only hair dyes available until the late nineteenth century.
- Hydrogen peroxide was discovered in 1818, but it was not until 1867 that it was exhibited at the Paris Exposition as an effective hair lightener.
- A London chemist and a Parisian hairdresser began marketing a 3% hydrogen peroxide formula at the Exposition as eau de fontaine de jeunesse (golden fountain of youth water). This was the first modern chemical hair colorant.
- Advances in chemistry led to the production of more hair dyes in the late nineteenth century.
- The first synthetic organic hair dye developed was pyrogallol.
- a substance that occurs naturally in walnut shells.

RAW MATERIALS

- In general, hair dyes include:
 - (i) **Dyes** e.g. 4-amino-2-hydroxytoluene
 - (ii) **Modifiers** e.g. resorcinol
 - (iii) **Antioxidants** e.g. sodium sulfite
 - (iv) **Alkalizers** e.g. ammonium hydroxide
- In addition to these basic chemicals many different chemicals are used to impart special qualities. They may be shampoos, fragrances, chemicals that make the formula creamy, foamy, or thick, or contribute to the overall action of the formula.
- Hair dyes are usually packaged with a developer which is in a separate bottle.
- The developer is most often based on hydrogen peroxide with the addition of small amounts of other chemicals depending on the manufacturer.

THE MANUFACTURING PROCESS

- The manufacturing process includes the following steps:
- First of all chemicals must be tested to make sure they are what they are labeled. Then weigh the chemicals accurately.

Further these chemicals are mixed in preheated water other solvents. The premix is agitated for about 20 minutes.

The pre mix is then added to a large tank, containing the other ingredients. After getting proper consistency, this mixture is delivered in a pack with developer and then distributed in the market.

Exercise Q3 (viii) What are adhesives? Discuss its working and types

ADHESIVES

An adhesive is a compound that adheres or bonds two items together

- Adhesives are meant to stick things together
- Adhesives may come from either natural or synthetic sources. Some are nature product and it is also manufactured in factories
- Some modern adhesives are extremely strong, and are used in modern construction and industry

TYPES OF ADHESIVES:

(1) NATURAL ADHESIVES

- These are made from inorganic mineral sources (e.g. silicate, clay, diatomaceous earth, bleb matter, starch (dextrin), natural resins, animal skin)
- They are often referred to as bioadhesives.

(2) SYNTHETIC ADHESIVES

Elastomers, thermoplastic and thermosetting resins are synthetic adhesives.

(3) DRYING ADHESIVES

The drying adhesives are a combination of organic and inorganic materials. The adhesive hardens e.g. White glue and rubber cement.

(4) CONTACT ADHESIVES

- Contact adhesives must be applied to both surfaces. The surfaces are pushed together
- Some contact adhesives require as long as 24 hours to cure.

(5) HOT GLUE

- It is also known as "hot melt" adhesives
- These adhesives are thermoplastics.
- They are applied hot and simply allowed to harden as they cool.
- These adhesives have become popular for attaching a wide range of common materials to which they can adhere
- The glue gun melts the solid adhesive and then extrudes it onto the material where it solidifies

(6) UV AND LIGHT CURING ADHESIVES

UV and light curing adhesives consist essentially of low molecular weight

QUICK QUIZ-8

1. Define adhesives.
 2. Give few examples of natural adhesives.
 3. Why and when drying adhesives harden.
 4. How adhesives are used applied.
 5. How hot glue is applied?
 6. Low molecular resins are present in which category of adhesive.
- UV and light curing adhesives consist essentially of

KEY POINTS

- of chemistry by discovery.
- Capital-intensive industries are industries.
- Light industries are easier to relocate than heavy industries and so are called light industries.
- Specialty chemicals are mainly used in the form of formulations. This calls for organic synthesis.
- The polar auxochrome makes the dyes soluble in water. The oppositely charged groups in the form of salt.
- Insecticides, fungicides, herbicides, etc., are all types of pesticides. Some pesticides touch, the pest to be deadly. Others must be swallowed to be effective.
- Petrochemicals are chemical products derived from petroleum. Some chemical compounds are also obtained from other fossil fuels such as coal or natural gas, or renewable sources like corn or sugar cane.
- **Polymers which are synthesized from only one kind of monomer are called homopolymers. Polymers which are prepared from more than one kind of monomer are called copolymers.**
- A thermoplastic polymer is one which softens on heating and becomes hard on cooling.
- A thermosetting polymer is one which becomes hard on heating and can not be softened by heating.
- Modern nail polish is sold in liquid form in small bottles and is applied with a tiny brush.
- Nail polish remover base commonly contains a mixture of two organic solvents acetone and ethyl acetate.
- Lipsticks are simple in chemical composition, however complicated their application or effects. They are made up of three ingredients—a waxy or fatty base, a dye and a perfume.
- Many different plant extracts were used for hair dye in Europe and Asia before the advent of synthetic dyes.
- Elastomers, thermoplastic and thermosetting adhesives are examples of synthetic adhesives.

EXERCISE

Q1: Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

- (i) The branch of chemistry which applies physical and chemical procedures towards the transformation of natural raw material and their derivatives to products is called:
(a) physical chemistry (b) classical chemistry (c) industrial chemistry (d) both b and c
- (ii) Which dye is used in boot polish?
(a) Azo dye (b) Congo red (c) Methyl orange (d) Bismarck Brown
- (iii) Miticides are used to control:
(a) ticks and mites (b) Fungi (c) Unwanted plants (d) mice and rats
- (iv) Aerosols and lotions are used as:
(a) Fungicides (b) Repellent (c) Herbicides (d) a and c
- (v) Petrochemicals are classified into how many classes?
(a) One (b) Two (c) Three (d) Four
- (vi) How many classes of polymers?
(a) One (b) Two (c) Three (d) Four
- (vii) Nylon is a polymer obtained by:
(a) Addition polymerization (b) Condensation polymerization
(c) Homopolymer (d) None
- (viii) Which of following is not a raw material for nail polish?
(a) Pearl (b) Castor oil (c) Resorcinol (d) Nitrocellulose
- (ix) A polymer which becomes hard on heating is:
(a) Thermosetting (b) Thermoplastic (c) Addition (d) None
- (x) Nail Polish remover base commonly contains a mixture of two organic solvents as:
(a) Benzene and acetone (b) ethyl acetate and CS₂ (c) Benzene and CS₂ (d) acetone and ethyl acetate
- (xi) Which of following adhesives are also known as bioadhesives?
(a) Drying adhesives (b) Synthetic adhesives (c) Natural adhesives (d) Hot glue
- (xii) A chemical compounds which is meant to stick things together
(a) Nail polish (b) Lipstick (c) Hair dye (d) adhesives
- (xiii) In early ages hair dyes were made from
(a) plants (b) animals (c) metallic compounds (d) both a and c
- (xiv) Polymers which are prepared from more than one kind of monomer are
(a) homopolymer (b) copolymer (c) addition polymer (d) none

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

(i) Ans: (c) Industrial chemistry By definition it is industrial chemistry	(ii) Ans: (d) Bismarck Brown Bismarck Brown is used in boot polish
(iii) Ans: (a) Ticks and mites The chemicals which kills mites are called miticides	(iv) Ans: (b) Repellent Aerosols and lotions are repellent
(v) Ans: (c) Three The three classes of petrochemicals are olefins, aromatics and synthesis gas	(vi) Ans: (b) Two There are two main types of polymers. Addition polymers and Condensation polymers
(vii) Ans: (b) Condensation polymerization Nylon is polyamide. It is obtained by condensation of adipic acid and hexamethylene diamine with the loss of water	(viii) Ans: (c) Resorcinol The raw materials for nail polish are castor oil, CS ₂ , Nitrocellulose
(ix) Ans: (a) Thermosetting By definition it is thermosetting	(x) Ans: (d) acetone and ethyl acetate Nail polish remover has mixture of acetone and ethyl acetate
(xi) Ans: (c) Natural adhesives Natural adhesives are obtained from living organisms i.e. plants. So they are called natural adhesives	(xii) Ans: (d) adhesives Adhesives bind or stick things
(xiii) Ans: (d) both a and c Early hair dyes were made from plants, metallic compounds or a mixture of the two	(xiv) Ans: (b) copolymer Polymers made from two kind of monomers are called copolymers

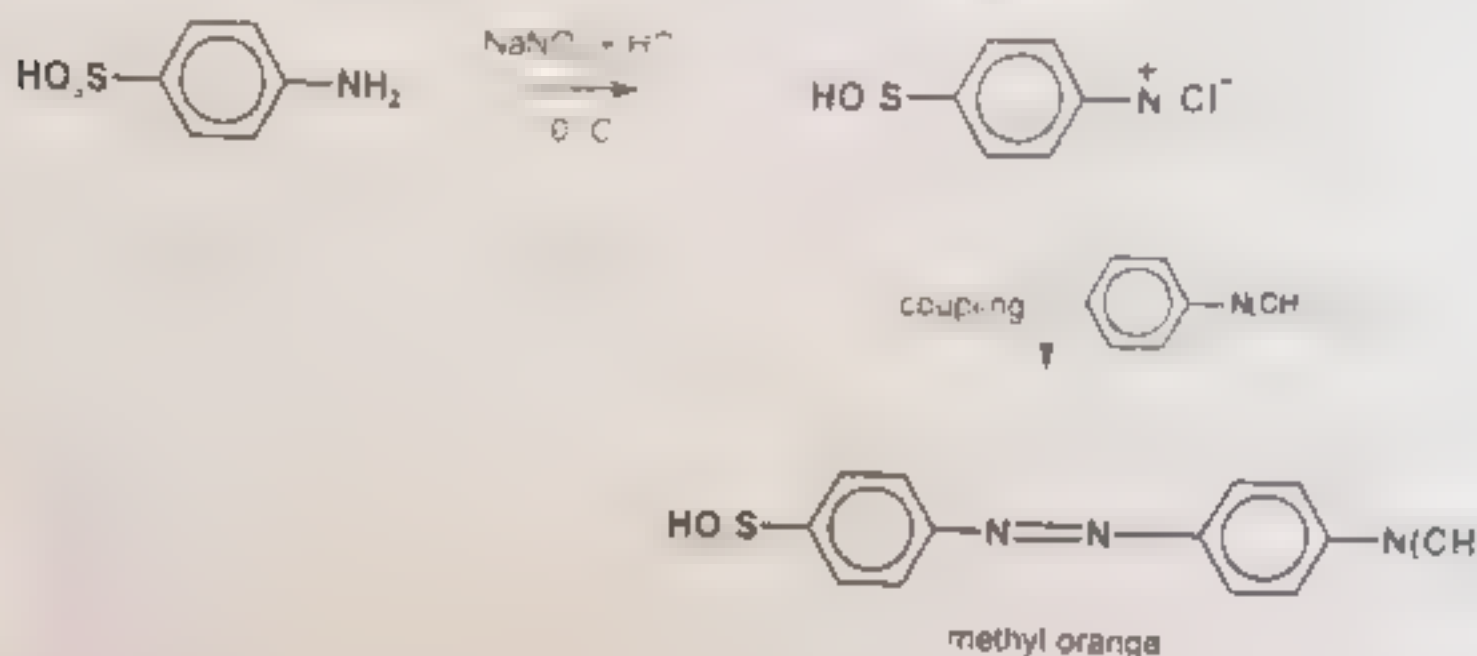
Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

(i) **What is the difference between classical and industrial chemistry**

- The Classical Chemistry (organic, inorganic and physical chemistry) is an essential part of science of chemistry. It discovers and describes the properties and characteristics of substances.
- The industrial chemistry applies physical and chemical principles discovered by classical chemistry towards the transformation of natural materials and the development of new products for the benefit of humanity.

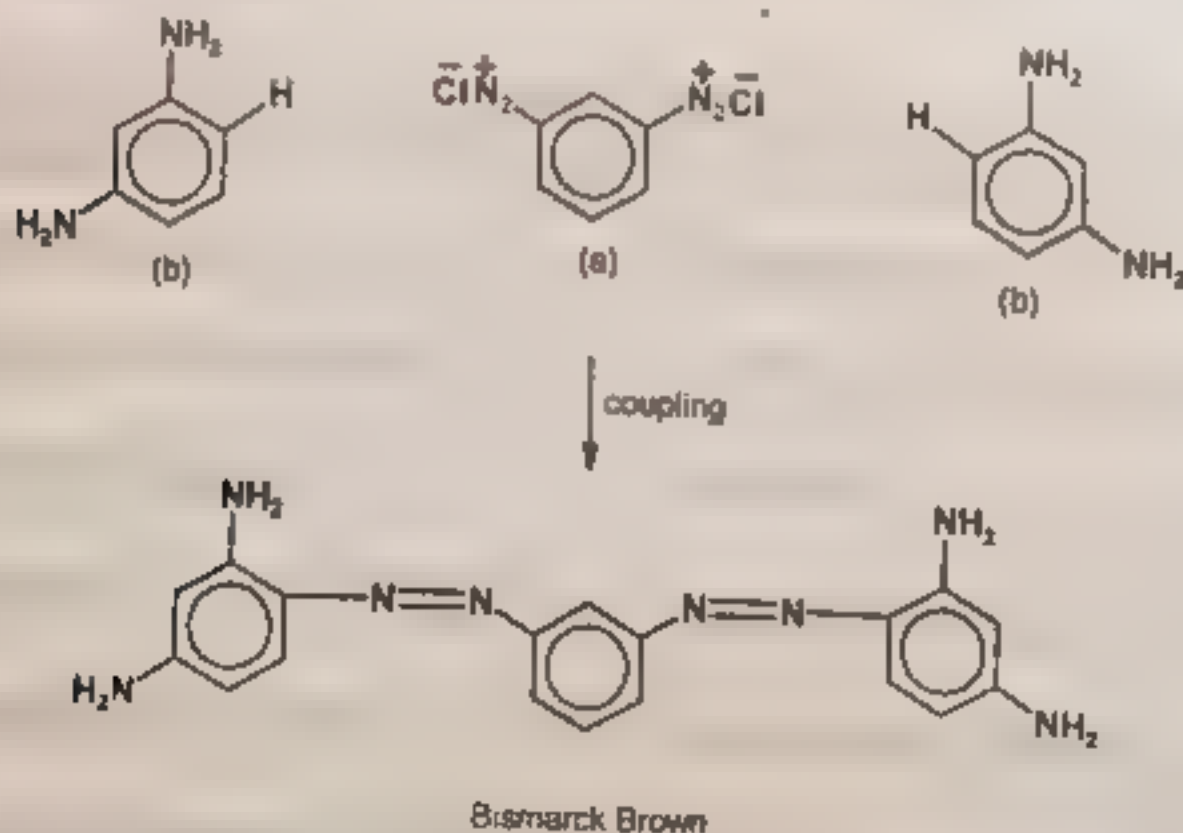
(ii) **How is methyl orange prepared?**

- Methyl orange is obtained in two steps as follows:



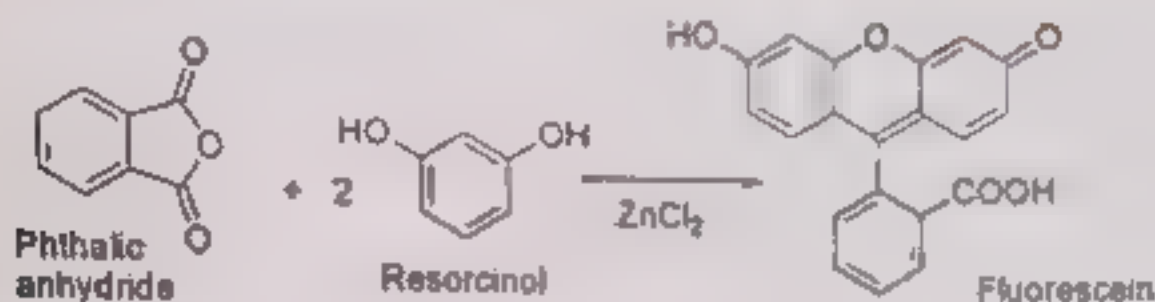
(iii) **How is Bismarck Brown prepared?**

- It is obtained by coupling tetrazotised *m*-diaminobenzene (a) with two molecules of *m*-diaminobenzene (b).



(iv) How is Fluorescein prepared?

It can be prepared from phthalic anhydride and resorcinol by the Crafts reaction.

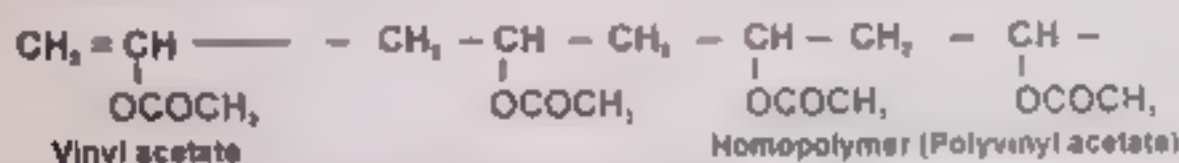


(v) Enlist different chemicals produced from ethylene
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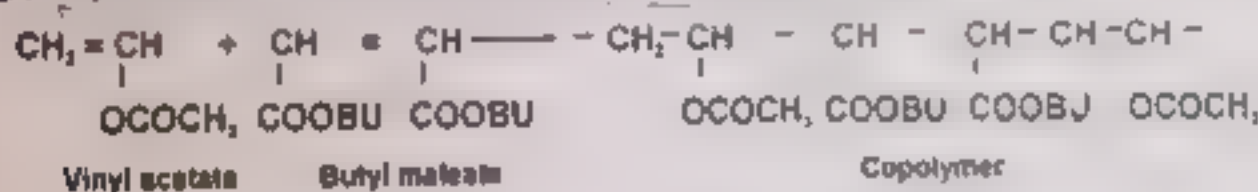
(vi) Write different chemicals produced from Toluene
Page

(vii) Differentiate between homopolymer and Copolymer

- Polymers which are synthesized from only one kind of monomer are called homopolymers
e.g., Polyvinyl acetate



- Polymers which are prepared from more than one kind of monomer are called copolymers
e.g.; vinyl acetate and butyl maleate combine to give a copolymer



(viii) What is the difference between thermoplastic and thermosetting polymer

- A thermoplastic polymer is one which softens on heating and becomes hard on cooling e.g. Polyvinyl chloride (PVC)
- A thermosetting polymer is one which becomes hard on heating it cannot be softened by heating e.g. Bakelite

(ix) How will you synthesize Nylon 6,6 from 1,3-Butadiene
Page 445

Q.1 Give detailed answers for the following questions

(i) What is chemical industry? Discuss different raw materials used in this industry.
Page 427

(ii) What are dyes? How are they classified on the basis of structure?
Page 430

(iii) What do you know about dyes? How are they classified on the basis of application?
Page 434

(iv) Write a note on-

(a) Vat Dyes Page 434

(b) Mordant Dyes Page 433

(v) What is meant by Pesticides? Describe its types in detail

Page 437

(vi) Describe the basic building block in petrochemicals technology

Page 439

(vii) Describe raw materials and manufacturing process of Nail Polish

Page 449

(viii) What are adhesives? Discuss its working and types

Page 453

1) Raw materials are

a. Dyes

2) An example

1a. Methyl orange

3) A

1a. Hydration

4) A

1a. Hydration

5) A

1a. Hydration

6) A

1a. Hydration

7) Which of the following is not a raw material?

a) Peas

8) In early days had

1a. Hydration

9) A chemical compound which is used to stick things together

1a. Adhesive

10) A

1a. Hydration

11) A

1a. Hydration

12) Which of the following solvent is used as a raw material?

1a. Acetone

13) Time 2:35 Hours

Total Marks 17 B and C 6H

14) Section B Marks 12

Q2 Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not be less than 40 words.

1) a) What are common chemicals?

b) What are fine chemicals?

2) a) Name main sources of raw materials?

b) Which raw materials are abundant?

3) a) Differentiate between B. C. & B. A.

b) Give examples of few natural products.

4) a) What is meant by performance chemicals?

b) Give share of different types of chemicals.

5) a) What are requirements of process safety?

b) Differentiate between classical & industrial chemistry.

6) What is a dye? Which properties must have?

7) Differentiate between

i) Pesticides & Insecticides

ii) Fungicides & herbicides

CH # 22 Industrial Chemistry

- 8) (a) What are mollusc _____
(b) Differentiate between selective & non-selective herbicides
- 9) (a) What is _____
(b) Name _____
- 10) (a) _____
(b) Why Nylon 6 6 is _____
- 11) (a) _____
(b) _____
- 12) What are _____
PVC _____
- 13) (a) How vinyl chloride _____
(b) Write formula of a _____
- 14) (a) Define adhesive
(b) Give few examples of natural adhesives
- 15) Give composition _____
- 16) (a) What is composition of _____
(b) What type _____
- 17) (a) _____
(b) _____
- 18) (a) _____
(b) Give an example of a copolymer
- 19) (a) How will you prepare _____
(b) Give uses of Nylon 6 6

Section - C

- Note** Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. 2 × 13 = 26
- 1) (a) _____
(b) _____
(c) _____
 - 2) (a) _____
(b) _____
(c) _____
 - 3) (a) _____
(b) _____
(c) What are different _____

(6)
(1)
(02)
(01)

(04)

CHAPTER # 23

ENVIRONMENTAL CHEMISTRY



INTRODUCTION:

It is the branch of chemistry which deals with the chemicals and other pollutants in the environment resulting directly and indirectly from human activities.

It is the study of the sources, chemical reactions, transportation of the chemicals and their adverse effects on human beings.

Environment pollutant

Any substance in the environment, which adversely affects the human health, quality of life and the natural functioning of ecosystem, is known as environmental pollutant.

Primary Pollutants

The pollutants which directly comes into the atmosphere from the source are called primary pollutants e.g. oxides of nitrogen and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) created from fossil fuel combustion etc.

Secondary Pollutants

The pollutants which are derived from primary pollutants by chemical reactions in the atmosphere are called secondary pollutants.

e.g. sulphuric acid, nitrogen monoxide, carbonic acid, hydrofluoric acid, peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN)

COMPONENTS OF THE ENVIRONMENT:

- (1) **Atmosphere:** Gases surrounding the earth
- (2) **Hydrosphere:** Concerned with all water bodies i.e. oceans, rivers, streams, lakes, glaciers and ground water reservoirs
- (3) **Lithosphere:** Concerned with hard and rigid rocky surface
- (4) **Biosphere:** Area on earth with support for life i.e. animals, plants etc.

ATMOSPHERE:

- Our surrounding on earth is called atmosphere
- It consists of gases i.e. N_2 , CO_2 , He, Ne, Kr, Xe and water vapours
- Its thickness is about 1000 km above the surface of earth

The gases present in the atmosphere are very important in the following ways

- (i) These gases absorb harmful radiations (cosmic rays and electromagnetic radiation) of Sun to protect life on earth. Otherwise these rays are very harmful to living things on earth.
- (ii) N_2 is used by nitrogen fixing bacteria
- (iii) O_2 is necessary for breathing in animals
- (iv) CO_2 is necessary for photosynthesis in plants and
- (v) Water vapours are responsible for sustaining life on earth

- Atmosphere has been divided into four layers:

1. Troposphere 2. Stratosphere 3. Mesosphere 4. Thermosphere

First two layer are of more concern to human life i.e. Troposphere and Stratosphere

CHEMISTRY OF TROPOSPHERE:

- Troposphere is very close to earth in which we live
- It extends up to 20km. It contains all those gases which are

SMOG

It is a combination of smoke and fog i.e. 'sm' from smoke and 'og' from fog

Industrial Smog

Photochemical smog

Major Chemical Pollutants in Photochemical Smog

Chemical	Source	Environmental Effects	Additional Notes
Nitrogen Oxides (NO_x)	Automobiles, power plants, and industry	Respiratory irritation, contributes to acid rain, and is a precursor for ozone	
Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs)	Paints, solvents, and various industrial processes	Contributes to the formation of ground-level ozone and smog	
Peroxyacetyl Nitrate (PAN)	Formed from NO_x and VOCs	Irritates the eyes and respiratory system	
Carbon Monoxide (CO)	Incomplete combustion of fossil fuels	Reduces oxygen delivery to organs, can be fatal at high concentrations	
Sulphur Dioxide (SO_2)	Burning of fossil fuels, volcanic activity	Respiratory irritation, contributes to acid rain, and can damage vegetation	

6) CHEMISTRY OF PHOTOCHEMICAL SMOG (CHEMICAL REACTIONS IN THE ATMOSPHERE)

- The development of photochemical smog is primarily determined by an abundance of nitrogen oxides and volatile organic compounds in the atmosphere and the presence of particular environmental conditions
- The following conditions must occur to begin the chemical process of photochemical smog development
 - ✓ Sunlight
 - ✓ The production of oxides of nitrogen (NO_x)
 - ✓ The production of volatile organic compounds (VOCs)
 - ✓ Temperatures greater than 18 degrees Celsius
- If the above criteria are met, several reactions will occur producing the toxic chemical constituents of photochemical smog.
- The formation of two most dominant toxic components **ozone (O_3)** and **peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN)** is given below PAN is primarily created from volatile organic compounds
- Nitrogen dioxide** can be formed by one of the following reactions. The **nitrogen oxide NO** acts to remove ozone (O_3) from the atmosphere and this mechanism occurs naturally in an unpolluted atmosphere

$$\text{O}_3 + \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{NO}_2 + \text{O}_2$$

$$\text{NO} + \text{RO}_2 \rightarrow \text{NO}_2 + \text{other products}$$
- Sunlight can break down **nitrogen dioxide (NO_2)** back into **nitrogen oxide NO**

$$\text{NO}_2 + \text{sunlight} \rightarrow \text{NO} + \text{O}$$
- The **atomic oxygen O** formed in the above reaction then reacts with one of the abundant oxygen molecules (which makes up 20.94 % of the atmosphere) producing **ozone (O_3)**

$$\text{O} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_3$$
- Nitrogen dioxide (NO_2)** can also react with radicals produced from volatile organic compounds in a series of reactions to form toxic products such as **peroxyacetyl nitrates PAN**

$$\text{NO}_2 + \text{R} \rightarrow \text{products such as PAN}$$

It should be noted that ozone can be produced naturally in an unpolluted atmosphere. However, it is consumed by nitrogen oxide. The introduction of volatile organic compounds results in an alternative pathway for the nitrogen oxide. Although still nitrogen dioxide is formed but ozone is not consumed. Therefore ozone concentrations can be elevated to toxic levels.

QUICK QUIZ-1:

- What is environmental chemistry?**
It is the branch of chemistry which deals with the chemicals and other pollutants in the environment, resulting directly and indirectly from human activities.
It is the study of the sources, chemical reactions, transportation of the chemicals and the adverse effects on human beings.
- What is smog? What are its types?**
It is a combination of smoke and fog i.e. sm from smoke and 'og' from fog.
It is of two types

Industrial Smog:

Under the right conditions, the smoke and sulfur dioxide produced from the combustion of fossil fuels with fog to create industrial smog.

Photochemical smog

It is a condition that is created from the reaction of primary pollutants (oxides of nitrogen and carbon monoxide) under the influence of sunlight to produce a mixture of different and harmful pollutants.

(ii) What are different sources and environmental effects of

a) Ozone

Sources : NO_2 is converted to O_3 by sunlight.
Environmental effects
 Irritation of the respiratory system, irritation of the eyes, irritation of the skin, retards plant growth, damages plastics, breaks down rubber, harsh odor.

b) Carbon oxides

Sources

The carbon oxides are

- Incomplete combustion of carbon containing fuels (CO)
- Incomplete combustion of agricultural or slush matter (CO)
- Combustion in blast furnace (CO)
- Cigarette smoke (CO)
- Burning of fossil fuels release CO
- Combustion of SO_2 (CO_2)
- From the atmosphere
- From the combustion of CO

Environmental effects

- Carbon monoxide has following environmental effects
- Causes (oxygen starvation) result suffocation
- Causes Green house and Global Warming results climatic changes
- Causes Acid rain
- Causes Air pollution
- Respiratory irritation

(c) Sulphur oxides

Sources

The sources of sulphur oxides are

- Volcanic Eruption
- Burnt of oil & coal
- Sulphide ores are roasted

Environmental Effects

The sulphur oxides have following environmental effects

- Causes acid rain
- Respiratory irritation
- Loss of green color in plants
- Fading in color of Fabrics, leathers, paper and paints.

(iv) For the development of photochemical smog, what conditions are necessary?

The following conditions must occur to begin the chemical process of photochemical smog development

- Sunlight
- The production of oxides of nitrogen (NO_x)
- The production of volatile organic compounds (VOCs)
- Temperatures greater than 18 degrees Celsius.

Exercise Q3 (i) Write a comprehensive note on acid rain

ACID RAIN

The pH of unpolluted rain water is 5.6. The rain water becomes acidic due to the presence of pollutants.

Explanation

We know that air contains SO_2 . It

- (1) SO_2 present in air undergoes photochemical and catalytic oxidation to form SO_3 which reacts with or moisture to form H_2SO_4 , i.e.



- (2) NO_2 reacts with rainy water or moisture



- (3) CO_2 reacts with rainy water or moisture



- (4) In some countries due to release

H_2SO_4 , HNO_3 and H_2CO_3 in rain water.

As far as H_2CO_3 is concerned

Quick Quiz-2 (ii): Write down different effects of acid rain?

IMPACTS OR EFFECTS:

- (1) It makes the lakes so a.
- (2) The yield of ag.
- (3) HNO_3 acid rain gradually eat
- (4) It fades the color of fabrics e.g.
- (5) Causes extensive leaf drop
- (6) It is very corrosive and
- (7) Acidification of soil and
- bodies. Then these bodies are eaten by fishes which proves to be dangerous for those animals and birds which
- (8) It also damages steel, paint, glass

QUICK QUIZ-2

(i) What is acid rain?

The pH of unpolluted rain water is 5.6.

(ii) Write down different effects of acid rain?

Page 472

(iii) List out those acid present in acid rain

The acids are: HCl , H_2SO_4 , HNO_3 and H_2CO_3 . However H_2CO_3

(iv) Name those heavy metals which leach due to acidification of soil

Acidification of soil and rocks can leach

GREEN HOUSE EFFECT AND GLOBAL WARMING

The heating up of earth due to the trapping of infrared radiations reflected from the earth's surface by CO_2 layer in the atmosphere is called "green-house-effect".

Explanation

- There is a protective layer O_3 gas in the atmosphere at

CH # 23. Environmental Chemistry

- The atmosphere is made up of various gases.
- Among these gases, CO_2 is the most abundant.
- CO_2 is known as the greenhouse gas.
- It is called so because it traps the heat in the atmosphere.
- The greenhouse effect is the process by which the atmosphere traps the heat.
- This effect is caused by the presence of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere.
- In other words, we can say that the layer of CO_2 gas in the atmosphere acts like a blanket, trapping the heat coming from the earth's surface.
- The rise in the temperature produced by the greenhouse effect in the atmosphere is called the greenhouse effect.

ORIGIN OF THE TERM "GREEN HOUSE EFFECT"

- This effect is used in horticulture for the growing of plants. The walls and roof are made of glass-sheet. This is called green house.
- The glass walls and glass roof of the house allow the short wavelength radiations of sunlight, to go into green-house freely.
- However, these do not allow the long wavelength infrared radiations reflected by the soil, plants and other contents of the green-house to go out.
- These trapped infrared radiations raise the temperature inside the green house.
- Thus, even without the internal supply of heat, the temperature inside the green house becomes much higher than that outside it.

Quick Quiz-2 (ii) What is the importance of green house effect?

IMPORTANCE OF GREEN HOUSE EFFECT:

- The green house effect is produced by the presence of CO_2 layer in the atmosphere. It is very necessary for our existence on the earth.
- Due to green house effect, CO_2 gas in the atmosphere does not allow the long wavelength infrared radiations reflected by the earth, to go out of the atmosphere. Hence the temperature of the earth's surface and its atmosphere is increased.
- The rise in temperature of the earth is very necessary for our existence on earth. If it is not, the whole earth would be converted into extremely cold planet. Thus, we shall not be able to have a normal life.

Quick Quiz-2 (iii) Concentration of CO_2 is responsible for climate changes. Comment

EFFECT OF EXCESS OF CO_2 PRESENT IN THE ATMOSPHERE:

- If the atmosphere contains too much quantity of CO_2 , the green house effect is considerably increased.
 - Thus, due to excess quantity of CO_2 present in the atmosphere, the temperature of the earth is increased too much. This too much high temperature melts all the glaciers (snow-mountains), floods the low-lying areas of the earth.
 - It also changes the biological Activity of oceans and the patterns of cropping etc.
- Thus the presence of the excess of CO_2 in the atmosphere brings about climate changes.

QUICK QUIZ-2:

Q1. CO_2 responsible for green house effect? If yes then how?

Ans. CO_2 is responsible for green house effect. It is because when solar radiations of longer wave length. The layer of CO_2 gas in the atmosphere traps the energy coming from the earth's surface. Thus energy of rays is trapped by CO_2 hence temperature is raised which is called Green House Effect.

Q2. What is the importance of green house effect?

Page 473

Q3. Concentration of CO_2 is responsible for climate changes. Comment

Page 497 Exercise Q 2 (ix)

10.3.1 AUTOMOBILE (POLLUTANTS AND CONVERTER)

- In automobiles during incomplete combustion of petrol, some pollutants are released which pollute the atmosphere.
- The engine used in these motor vehicles are called internal combustion engine. In this engine, petrol which is used as a fuel is burnt inside the engine and not separately.
- The exhaust gases contains CO , NO , NO_2 , unburnt carbon particles, hydrocarbons, alcohols, some alcohol and acids.
- All these substances are poisonous and hence pollute air.

10.3.2 PRODUCTION OF POLLUTANTS:

- Petrol is used as a fuel in automobile (car) engine. The main components of petrol are hydrocarbons. These hydrocarbons have general formula $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$ and hence are called alkanes.
- Petrol burns very fast in a car engine. Due to short time available for burning, the combustion of petrol takes place and some CO , unburnt carbon particles, CO_2 , H_2O , H_2 , CH_4 and C_2H_6 are produced.
- CO and carbon particles are emitted into the air and thus air is polluted.
- When petrol burns in a car engine, a very high temperature is produced.
- At this high temperature, N_2 and O_2 present in air of the engine combine with each other and form NO and NO_2 . These gases also pollute the air.

Exercise Q3 (iii) How would you control air pollution? Describe different methods.

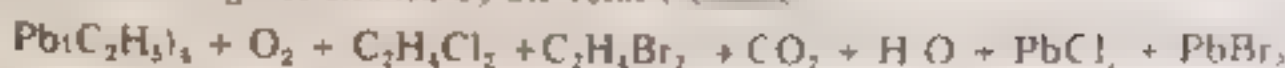
10.3.3 CONTROL MEASURE:

In order to control the air pollution caused by hydrocarbons and CO etc. the following methods are used:

1. By adding lead tetraethyl $\text{Pb}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_4$ to petrol

- Suppose a vehicle uses petrol as fuel. Petrol burns very fast in the vehicle engine, e.g. C_8H_{18} . The rate of combustion of petrol is very high and hence the time taken by the petrol for its combustion is very short. Due to this short time, the combustion of petrol is incomplete.
- $\text{Pb}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_4$ is added to the petrol to slow down the rate of combustion.
- $\text{Pb}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_4$ provides more time to the petrol for its combustion and hence it can burn it more completely.
- Due to this the quantity of unburnt hydrocarbons and CO coming out of the engine is reduced and hence air pollution is also minimized.
- $\text{Pb}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_4$ is oxidized to PbO which gets deposited on the spark plugs and valves.
- In order to prevent the deposition of PbO suitable amount of Mg is added to the petrol along with $\text{Pb}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_4$.

- These halides convert PbO into PbCl₂ and PbBr₂ with the exhaust gases emitted by the vehicle.



- Although the addition of Pb(C₂H₅)₄ minimize the air the air gets polluted with gases as PbCl₂ and PbBr₂.

(2) Catalytic oxidation/Converter

- The pollution of air caused by the exhaust gases of a gas device with the vehicle engine.
- In this device the exhaust gases are burnt completely in the platinum catalyst before they are released into the air.
- Hydrocarbons and CO are oxidized.



The disadvantage of this method is that the poisonous gases produced by PbCl₂ and PbBr₂ are produced by the reaction between Pb(C₂H₅)₄ and C₂H₄Cl₂ and C₂H₄Br₂ in the presence of

QUICK QUIZ-3:

(i) What is the role of tetraethyl lead in minimizing the air pollution?

Petrol burns too fast in the engine. Thus, tetraethyl lead Pb(C₂H₅)₄ is added to the petrol to slow combustion. Thus, it gives more time to the petrol for its complete combustion. Hence the quantity of unburnt hydrocarbons and CO coming out of the engine, with exhaust gases is reduced. Hence air pollution is also minimized.

(ii) What is internal combustion engine?

The engine used in these motor vehicles are called internal combustion engines. It is because the petrol which is used as a fuel is burnt inside the engine and not separately.

(iii) Name those pollutants produced in automobile engines.

The exhaust gases from automobile engines contain CO, NO, NO₂, unburnt hydrocarbons, alcohols, and acids.

(iv) What gas is produced due to high temperature of engine?

At this high temperature N₂ and O₂ present in air of the engine combine together and form NO and NO₂.

(v) What is drawback of lead tetraethyl used to control air pollution?

Tetraethyl lead Pb(C₂H₅)₄ is oxidized to PbO which gets deposited on the spark plugs and valves. In order to prevent the deposition of PbO suitable amount of C₂H₄Cl₂ and C₂H₄Br₂ are also added to petrol along with Pb(C₂H₅)₄.

CHEMISTRY OF THE STRATOSPHERE:

This layer of atmosphere is present 20-40 km above the earth and ozone is present in this layer at a height of about 28 kilometers.

The concentration of ozone in this layer is 10 ppm (10 parts per million).

In this layer of atmosphere, ozone is most important.

PRODUCTION OF O₃ AND ITS TOXIC EFFECTS:

- O₃ is also produced in the upper part of the atmosphere by the action of sunlight on O₂.
$$3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{O}_3$$
- Some O₃ is produced during various combustion processes taking place in the air.

- Traces of O_3 in air do not harm but O_3 of concentration more than 0.1 ppm is toxic and harmful to human beings
- O_3 also attacks rubber products

PROTECTIVE ACTION OF OZONE LAYER IN THE ATMOSPHERE:

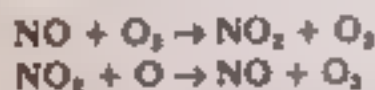
- The thickest layer of O_3 exists at a height of 23 km from the surface of the earth
- The O_3 present in this layer absorbs harmful ultraviolet radiations coming from the sun
- If these radiations reach the earth they will cause skin cancer and will destroy the organic molecules necessary for life
- Thus O_3 does not allow the ultra-violet radiations to reach the earth and thus saved from the harmful effects caused by these radiations
- If O_3 layer in the atmosphere disappears completely, then all the harmful ultra violet radiations coming from the sun would reach the earth. It would cause skin cancer in men and animals and will also damage the plants.
- Hence, All the life on earth would then gradually be destroyed

SOURCES OF DESTRUCTION/DESTROYING THE OZONE LAYER PRESENT IN STRATOSPHERE:

- In 1980 scientists showed that there is a hole in the O_3 layer
- This hole was detected over the region of Antarctica
- Due to the absence of O_3 layer the ultraviolet rays coming from the sun can pass through the hole and thus can reach the earth's surface
- The ozone hole is due to the fact that the amount of O_3 present in stratosphere is getting reduced day by day. Thus, the ozone layer is becoming thinner and thinner
- The depletion of the ozone layer is due to the following sources

(1) Oxides of Nitrogen:

- The oxides of nitrogen present in the atmosphere decompose O_3 into O_2 and are themselves regenerated



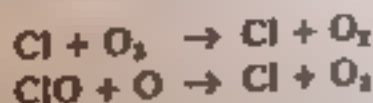
- Thus, the presence of nitrogen oxides in the atmosphere destroys the ozone layer
- These oxides destroy about 70% of O_3 found in the stratosphere
- Greater is the amount of the oxides in the atmosphere greater is the percentage of O_3 which is destroyed

(2) Nuclear Tests:

Nuclear tests being conducted in the world generate high temperature. At high temperature, atmospheric nitrogen is favorably oxidized to NO. NO thus formed destroys ozone layer, as shown above

(3) Use of Chloro-Fluoro Carbons:

Fluoro-chloro-carbons are the fluoro-chloro methanes like Freon 1 ($CFCl_3$) and Freon 2 (CF_2Cl_2). These are stable compounds. These are chemically inert and hence do not react with the substances. These are used as aerosol spray propellants, refrigerants, fire fighting reagent and solvents for cleaning electronic components. When they enter stratosphere, they absorb ultraviolet solar radiations and get broken down to release chlorine. This atomic chlorine decomposes O_3 into O_2 like NO gas



PROTECTION OF THE OZONE LAYER

- Chlorine and bromine atoms are highly reactive and can destroy ozone molecules.
- The release of these atoms from CFCs is the main cause of ozone depletion.
- The Montreal Protocol is an international agreement designed to phase out the production and use of CFCs.

SOME ALTERNATIVES TO CHLORO-FLUORO CARBONS (CFCs):

- Hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) and Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) are two types of alternatives to CFCs.
- These have zero or very low ozone depletion potential.
- HCFCs break down more easily in the atmosphere than CFCs.
- However because they are still chlorine containing, they are not completely safe.
- Much better substitutes for CFCs are HFCs, which do not contain chlorine.
- One of them $\text{CF}_3\text{CH}_2\text{F}$ has been used successfully as a refrigerant and in nearly all car air conditioners.
- In electronic industries, soapy water followed by rinsing with a strong solvent cleans micro circuits.
- Unfortunately, a serious problem is associated with the long term use of HFCs. They contribute to climate change.
- However researches are going on to find them as they are both effective and environmentally friendly.

QUICK QUIZ-4:

(i) Ozone acts both useful as well as harmful. Justify the statement.

The O_3 absorbs the harmful ultra-violet radiations coming from the sun. Thus, it saves the life from the harmful effects of ultra-violet rays.

However its high concentration in atmosphere is very harmful. It causes respiratory problems and rubber retards plant growth etc.

(ii) Enlist the possible alternatives to the use of CFCs.

The possible alternatives to the use of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) are Hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), e.g. CF_3CHCl_2 and CHF_2Cl and Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), e.g. $\text{CF}_3\text{CH}_2\text{F}$.

(iii) How O_3 is decomposed by oxides of nitrogen.

The oxides of nitrogen present in the atmosphere decompose O_3 into O_2 and are themselves regenerated.



(iv) How ozone is produced.

O_3 is produced in the upper part of the atmosphere by the action of sunlight on O_2 .



Some O_3 is produced during various combustion processes taking place in the air.

WATER POLLUTION AND WATER TREATMENT

The contamination of water with the substances which have adverse effects on human beings, animal and plants is called water pollution.

The substances whose presence in the water makes it polluted are called pollutants.

TYPES OF WATER POLLUTANTS

These are of following types

UNDESIRABLE SOLID AND SEDIMENTS:

These are wastes which are not completely soluble but suspended in the water. These wastes include

- (1) Oil spillage
- (2) Live-stock waste
- (3) Industrial wastes and
- (4) Leather tanneries

Quick Quiz-5 (i) Briefly describe about oil spillage as a source of water pollution and its effects on environment.

(i) OIL SPILLAGE.

- Petroleum is a complex mixture of many compounds which are mainly hydrocarbons.
- It is transported from one place to another through sea.
- The petroleum products are used as
 - (i) Fuel
 - (ii) Lubricants manufacture of petrochemicals
 - (iii) Plastics
 - (iv) Electrical appliances
 - (v) Synthetic rubber
 - (vi) Detergents
- In order to prepare such a large varieties of substances, petroleum is handled on large scale in the world. So the oil spillage can take place and it creates serious problems.

Pollution of Water by Petroleum:

Water gets polluted by

- (i) accidental oil spills
- (ii) leakage from cargo oil tankers in sea
- (iii) tanker trucks
- (iv) pipelines leakage during offshore exploration
- (v) leakage of under ground storage tanks

(ii) Spillage and Animal Life:

- Many petroleum products are poisonous and create serious health problems to
 - (i) Humans
 - (ii) Animals
 - (iii) Aquatic life
- Polycyclic hydrocarbons are carcinogenic even at very low concentrations.
- Marine animals are seriously affected by soluble aromatic fractions of oil.
- The spilled oil damages the feather of the birds or fur of animals and sometimes causes death.

Petroleum and Under Water Plants:

- When oil is spilled on the surface of sea then the light transmission is affected. Thus the process of photosynthesis of plants does not remain much efficient.
- Moreover the concentration of oxygen in water is decreased.

2) LIVE STOCK WASTE

- Excreta
- Urine
- Faeces
- Slurries
- Manure
- Excreta
- Urine
- Faeces
- Slurries
- Manure

3) INDUSTRIAL WASTES

Sources

- Chemical industries
- Textile industries
- Food processing industries
- Pharmaceutical industries
- Metallurgical industries
- Leather tanning industries
- Paint and pigment industries
- Plastic industries
- Paper and pulp industries
- Chemical industries
- Textile industries
- Food processing industries
- Pharmaceutical industries
- Metallurgical industries
- Leather tanning industries
- Paint and pigment industries
- Plastic industries
- Paper and pulp industries

Pollutants

- Organic solvents
- Greases
- Mineral acids
- Heavy metals
- Organic compounds
- Organic solvents
- Greases
- Mineral acids
- Heavy metals
- Organic compounds

Effects of Industrial pollutants

- They are highly toxic and cause many health problems
- When they are continuously ingested through food or water, they get accumulated in the organisms and cause various health problems like anemia, kidney diseases, nervous disorder, high blood pressure etc.

(4) LEATHER TANNERIES

- There are many leather tanning units working in Pakistan. Their sizes vary from cottage scale to industrial units.
- Leather industries use chromium salts which have +6 oxidation state of chromium.
- Only a few industries have the facility of waste treatment. This can be done by reducing Cr^{+6} oxidation state to Cr^{+3} oxidation state. Cr^{+3} is precipitated as $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$.
- Cr^{+6} salts are highly toxic and cause cancer.

DISSOLVED SOLIDS

These are wastes which are dissolved soluble in water completely. These wastes include

- (1) Detergents
- (2) Pesticides
- (3) Chemical fertilizers

(1) DETERGENTS

- Detergents are used in homes and industries for washing.
- After washing these detergents are thrown into water reservoirs.
- The amount of detergents in reservoirs is increasing day by day.
- This waste water containing detergents goes into rivers and finally reaches the ocean, which is harmful to life in seas.
- The detergents remove bound heavy metal ions like Pb, Cd and Hg and transport it from sediments to water. These metal particles are very toxic.

23) PESTICIDES

- The pesticides are both toxic and persistent.
- Analysis of polluted water has shown that it contains pesticides which are toxic to fish.
- **Endrin** is reported to be toxic for catfish and other varieties of fish even if present in traces.
- **D D T**, affects the central nervous system of fish. **Chlorobiphenyl** has been reported to cause bone degeneration in fish.

24) CHEMICAL FERTILIZERS

- Nitrate/phosphate salts are generally used as fertilizers to increase the yield of the crops.
- When these fertilizers are used in excess, some of their unused quantity is washed away from the agriculture lands into the ponds, lakes and rivers. This causes pollution. This area is polluted since it contains unused fertilizers.
- Similarly the waste water coming from the factories contains nitrogenous phosphatic fertilizers. When these are washed away into the rivers, they make the water polluted.
- The presence of nitrogenous phosphatic fertilizers affects the aquatic life and human beings in the following ways:
 - (i) The presence of the fertilizers in the ponds increases the growth of algae and other aquatic plants. These later on undergo decomposition, which produces a foul odor. These plants also deplete the amount of O_2 dissolved in water and the survival of aquatic life becomes difficult or impossible.
 - (ii) After a long period, the fertilizers in the ponds are converted into swamps. A swamp is a low-lying area of land which is very wet and muddy.
 - (iii) The water containing fertilizers is not fit for drinking purposes. Moreover, this polluted water cannot be purified for drinking purposes.

Exercise Q3 (iv): What is Thermal Pollution? Discuss its sources and environmental effects.

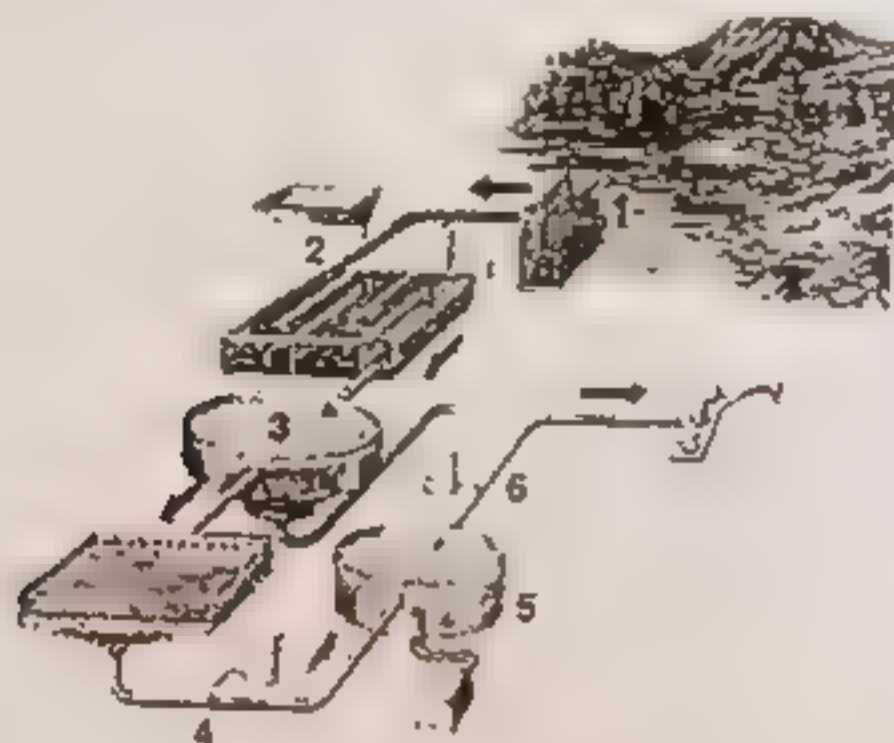
THERMAL POLLUTION

- Thermal pollution takes place because many electric generating stations use water to cool their generator. This heated water is then released into the surrounding water, causing a warming trend of the surface water.
- Thermal pollution results when the heated effluent is released into the surrounding water. In these cases, permanent temperature increase often results, which leads to a decrease in the amount of dissolved oxygen. In lakes, it also becomes possible to bring about nutrient enrichment and prolonged summer stagnation periods.
- When heated water gets released into large well-flushed marine systems, there is little or no permanent temperature rise.
- There are, however, problems related to the operation of plants using marine water for the cooling process.
- Evidence reveals that sea water tends to corrode the cooling pipes, which are generally constructed of a copper-nickel alloy termed Monel. These metals readily dissolve in the heated seawater and are then released into the marine environment together with the heated effluent. This adds to the nickel and copper concentrations of these systems.
- In addition, the screens covering the water intake pipes rapidly foul with marine organisms, which decrease the flow of water into the plant. The screens have been commonly cleaned by using a concentrated detergent solution or copper sulfate. These cleaning materials have been then released into the contaminated surrounding waters.

Exercise Q3 (c) What is waste water treatment? Discuss different methods of it

WASTE WATER TREATMENT: ANALYSIS/PURIFICATION OF WATER

- Industrial wastewater treatment covers the mechanisms and processes used before its release into the environment or its re-use
- Most industries produce some wet waste. A modern enterprise may recycle such production or recycle such waste within the process.
- However many industries remain dependent on processes that produce waste.



Water Treatment Plant

Do You Know?

About 97% of the water on earth is found in the oceans. Most of the rest is frozen in the polar ice caps and in glaciers.

TREATMENT OF INDUSTRIAL WASTE WATER

The different types of contamination of wastewater require a variety of strategies to remove the contaminants.

(A) SOLIDS REMOVAL

Most solids can be removed using simple sedimentation techniques with the solids recovered as sludge.

(B) OILS AND GREASES

- Many oils can be recovered from open water surfaces by skimming devices.
- However hydraulic oils and the majority of oils that have degraded to any extent will have a soapy or emulsified component. These require further treatment to eliminate.

(C) SOFT ORGANICS

- Organic material of plant or animal origin is usually possible to treat using extended conventional wastewater treatment processes.
- Problems can arise if the wastewater is excessively diluted with washing water or is highly concentrated such as neat blood or milk.
- The presence of cleaning agents, disinfectants, pesticides, or antibiotics can have detrimental impacts on treatment processes.

(D) HARD ORGANICS

- Synthetic organic materials including solvents, paints, pharmaceuticals, pesticides, coxing products etc can be very difficult to treat.
- Treatment methods are often specific to the material being treated. Methods include distillation, adsorption, nitrification, incineration, chemical treatment, etc. for organic disposal.

(E) ACIDS AND ALKALIS

- Acids and alkalis can usually be neutralized under controlled conditions.
- Neutralization frequently produces a precipitate that will require treatment as a solid residue that may also be toxic.
- In some cases, gasses may be evolved requiring treatment of the gas stream.

(F) TOXIC MATERIALS

- Toxic materials including many organic materials, metals (such as lead, silver, cadmium, thallium etc), acids, alkalis, non-metallic elements (such as arsenic, selenium etc) are generally resistant to biological processes unless very dilute.
- Metals can often be precipitated out by changing the pH or by reacting with other chemicals.
- Many, however, are resistant to treatment or require high concentration followed by land filling or recycling.

QUICK QUIZ-5:

(i) Briefly describe about oil spillage as a source of water pollution and its effects on environment.
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(ii) Enlist the diseases caused by live-stock

Bacteria are present in the livestock waste. These cause different diseases like

(a) Dysentery, (b) Typhoid, (c) Hepatitis

(iii) How industrial wastes pollute water?

The industrial pollutants are highly toxic organic compounds and heavy metals like Pb, Cd, Cr, Hg, As, Sb etc. Oil greases, Mineral acids are also released in small quantities.

These pollutants result in contamination of water and make it unsuitable for irrigation and drinking purposes.

(iv) How chemical fertilizers pollute water?

When Nitrate/phosphate fertilizers are used in excess, some of their quantity is washed away into the ponds, lakes and river with rain water and thus pollute the water.

The waste water coming from the fertilizer industries also contains nitrogenous and phosphate fertilizers. When these are washed away into the lakes and river with rain water, they make the water polluted.

(v) How solubility of oxygen in water is reduced by thermal pollution?

Thermal pollution occurs when the heated effluent is released in a poorly flushed system. In these cases, permanent temperature increase may occur which decreases the solubility of dissolved oxygen.

(vi) What is swamp?

A swamp is an area of very wet land with wild plants growing in it. It is generally a low lying area where water collects.

Various Parameters of Water Analysis

Following table will help us to determine the water quality

Table Water quality Indicators

Parameter	Significance	Limit
Dissolved oxygen	General indicator of water quality; source of O_2 for respiration	Minimum acceptable level is 5 mg/liter. Below 2 mg/liter for respiration of most desirable fish
Total suspended solids	Clog fish gills; decrease light penetration; increase heat absorption	Does not indicate pollution
Total dissolved solids	Represents total mineral content which may or may not be toxic	A maximum of 1000 mg/liter is considered safe for populations
BOD	Amount of dissolved oxygen removed during decomposition of organic matter in a given time; a general indicator of contamination due to biodegradable organics	<p>Water Quality Status</p> <p>1 mg/liter Very clean</p> <p>2 mg/liter Clean</p> <p>3 mg/liter Fairly clean</p> <p>5 mg/liter Doubtful</p> <p>10 mg/liter Contaminated</p>
COD	Indicates the concentration of materials oxidizable by chemical reaction	0.5 mg/liter indicates very clean streams
pH	Indicates the addition of acids or bases	pH depends on actual system
Iron	Excessive amounts can clog fish gills; indicates drainage from iron-bearing sediments, mines, industrial processes	A maximum of 0.7 mg/liter for diverse fish populations
Manganese	Concentration low in natural systems due to low solubility; high concentrations indicates contamination	A maximum of 1 mg/liter is a common criterion for stream quality

Table (Contd.)

Parameter	Significance	Level
Copper	Indicates drainage from copper-bearing sediment, mines, plating, or other industrial sources	A maximum of 0.02-0.10 mg/liter is a common criterion for stream quality
Zinc	Indicates mine drainage or industrial input	A maximum of 1 mg/liter is a common criterion for stream quality
Hg, Cd, Pb, Ni, Cr, Ag, etc.	Indicates industrial input	A maximum of 1 mg/liter is a common criterion for stream quality
Nitrate	A major plant nutrient; in high-concentrations it can promote excessive plant growth; major sources are fertilizers, sludge, and sewage	A maximum of 0.3 mg/liter to prevent excessive fertilization of streams
Phosphate	A major plant nutrient; major sources are detergents, fertilizers, sewage	A maximum of 0.03-0.40 mg/liter total inorganic phosphate is a common criterion

QUICK QUIZ-6

(i) What is green chemistry?

The design of chemical products and processes that reduce or eliminate the use or generation of hazardous substances is called green chemistry.

Green chemistry emphasizes the design and creation of chemicals that are not hazardous to people or the environment.

(ii) Give importance of green chemistry.

Green chemistry emphasizes the design and creation of chemicals that are not hazardous to people or the environment. Thus, it is effective in reducing the impact of chemicals on human health and the environment.

(iii) What is spinosad?

Spinosad is an insecticide manufactured by fermenting a naturally occurring soil organism. It was registered by the EPA as a reduced-risk insecticide in 1997. It has following advantages:

- It does not leach, bioaccumulate, volatilize, or persist in the environment.
- In fields, it left 70 to 90 percent of beneficial insects unharmed.
- It has a relatively low toxicity to mammals and birds. It is slightly toxic to aquatic organisms. However, it is toxic to bees.

CH 23 Environmental Chemistry

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Page No. _____

(1b) Give principle of green chemistry.

The 12

(1c) What is sustainable chemistry?

(1d) Give one example of sustainable chemistry.

Exercise Q1 of Worksheet 11 on Environmental Chemistry

GREEN CHEMISTRY

The 12

The design of chemical products and processes that reduce or eliminate the use and generation of hazardous substances is called green chemistry.

- Green chemistry is a branch of chemistry that designs products and processes that are safer and more efficient, and that reduce or eliminate the use and generation of hazardous substances.
- Green chemistry is a branch of chemistry that designs products and processes that are safer and more efficient, and that reduce or eliminate the use and generation of hazardous substances.

WHY GREEN CHEMISTRY?

- Green chemistry is effective in reducing the impact of chemicals on human health and the environment.
- Green chemistry is a branch of chemistry that designs products and processes that are safer and more efficient, and that reduce or eliminate the use and generation of hazardous substances.
- Many environmental laws and regulations have been enacted, but they are often complex and difficult to follow, and they can be complicated.
- But green chemistry allows companies to comply with the law in much simpler and cheaper ways.
- Finally, green chemistry is a fundamental science-based approach. Addressing the problem of hazardous molecular level can be applied to all kinds of environmental issues.
- Since 1991, there have been many advances in green chemistry, in both academic research and industrial implementation.
- For example, Spinosad, an insecticide manufactured by fermenting a naturally occurring soil organism, was registered by the EPA as a reduced risk insecticide in 1997.
- Spinosad does not reach bioaccumulate, volatilize, or persist in the environment and in field tests left 90 percent of beneficial insects unharmed. It has a relatively low toxicity to mammals and birds and is 95% to moderately toxic to aquatic organisms, but is toxic to bees until it dries.

(v) Give principle of green chemistry

The design of

chemical processes

that reduce or eliminate the use and generation of hazardous substances

in the environment

(vi) What is synthetic efficiency

An efficient process is one that uses the least amount of raw materials

to produce a given product with the least amount of waste

(vii) Give use of renewable feed stocks

Renewable feed stocks are those that can be replenished naturally

over a short period of time, such as plants, animals, and minerals

Exercise Q3: Write a note on Green Chemistry

GREEN CHEMISTRY

The term **Green Chemistry** in 1991 is defined as

The design of chemical products and processes that reduce or eliminate the use and generation of hazardous substances is called green chemistry

- Green chemistry emphasizes the design and creation of chemicals that are not hazardous to the environment
- It has been applied to the design of industrial and consumer goods including paints, pesticides, plastics, medicines, electronics, cleaning, energy, generation and water pollution

WHY GREEN CHEMISTRY?

- Green chemistry is effective in reducing the impact of chemicals on human health and the environment
- In addition, many companies have found that it can be cheaper and even profitable to meet the goals. Process can result in higher efficiency, less waste, better product quality, and reduced costs
- Many environmental laws and regulations target hazardous chemicals, and following all these can be very expensive
- But green chemistry allows companies to comply with the law in much simpler and cheaper ways
- Finally, green chemistry is a fundamental science based approach. Addressing the problem at the molecular level can be applied to all kinds of environmental issues
- Since 1991, there have been many advances in green chemistry, in both academic research and implementation
- For example, **Spinosad**, an insecticide manufactured by fermenting a naturally occurring soil organism, registered by the EPA as a **reduced-risk insecticide** in 1997
- Spinosad does not readily accumulate, bioaccumulate, or persist in the environment and in field tests it does not harm beneficial insects. It has a relatively low toxicity to mammals and birds and is to moderate toxicity to aquatic organisms, but is toxic to bees until it dries

THE TWELVE (12) PRINCIPLES OF GREEN CHEMISTRY

The aim of green chemistry is to reduce chemical related impact on human health and virtually eliminate contamination of the environment through dedicated sustainable prevention programs.

Green chemistry searches for alternative environmentally friendly reaction media and at the same time strives to increase reaction rates and lower reaction temperatures.

Sigma-Aldrich is dedicated to providing alternative products designed with the health and safety of its employees, customers, and the public in mind.

The green chemistry concept applies innovative scientific solutions to solve environmental issues posed in the laboratory.

Paul T. Anastas, an organic chemist working in the Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics at the EPA and **John C. Warner** developed the Twelve Principles of Green Chemistry in 1991.

The twelve Principles focus on reducing the volumes of chemicals used and pollution prevention.

These principles can be grouped into 'Reducing Risk' and 'Minimizing the Environmental Footprint'.

(I) REDUCING RISK IN THE LABORATORY

This group includes four principles.

- (1) **Use Safer Chemicals** - Utilize performance chemicals that have the lowest levels of toxicity.
- (2) **Design Less Hazardous Synthesis Methods** - Where feasible, make use of synthetic or biosynthetic methods that pose little or no toxicity to human health and the environment.
- (3) **Use Safer Solvents and Reaction Conditions** - Search for the most up-to-date information on green solvents that will optimize your process and provide a safer working environment.
- (4) **Accident Prevention** - Select substances that minimize the potential for explosions, fires and chemical releases into the environment.

(II) MINIMIZING THE ENVIRONMENTAL FOOTPRINT

This group includes eight principles.

- (1) **Waste Minimization and Prevention** - Develop chemical synthesis techniques which reduce or prevent waste. It is better to prevent waste than to clean it up after its creation.
- (2) **Use of Catalysts Instead of Stoichiometric Quantities** - Catalytic reactions are more efficient than stoichiometric quantities of chemicals to carry out a specified transformation.
- (3) **Reduce the Use of Chemical Derivatives** - The use of protecting groups or other forms of temporary modification of a functionality adds to the total waste incurred in a synthetic route.
- (4) **Synthetic Efficiency (Atom Economy)** - An efficient chemical process ensures that the maximum amount of starting materials is used in the final product so that no atom is wasted.
- (5) **Taking Advantage of Chemicals Designed for Degradation** - Reduce the effect on the environment by using chemicals that are designed to be biodegradable.
- (6) **Establishment of In Process Controls for Pollution Prevention** - To avoid the contamination of substances, adopt real-time analysis and in process monitoring during synthesis.
- (7) **Use of Renewable Feedstocks** - Use raw materials or renewable feedstocks (waste from other processes or products derived from agricultural streams) whenever technically, economically and environmentally feasible.
- (8) **Encourage Energy Efficiency** - The realization of the economical and environmental benefits of a chemical process and the development of alternative means to reduce the energy consumption.

SOCIETY, TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE

RADIATION POLLUTION

Sources of radioactive pollution and its effects

- (i) **Radioactive Cloud**
The radioactive cloud is formed when the nuclear reactor is damaged or destroyed. The radioactive material is released into the atmosphere and spreads over a large area.
- (ii) **Energy**
The energy released from the nuclear reactor is used for various purposes. It is also used for the production of electricity.
- (iii) **Tumors**
People who are exposed to radioactive radiation are at a higher risk of developing tumors.
- (iv) **Radioactive Elements**
Radioactive elements are released from the nuclear reactor. They are highly toxic and can cause serious health problems.
- (v) **Nuclear Explosions**
Nuclear explosions are highly destructive. They release a large amount of radioactive radiation into the atmosphere, which can pollute the sea water and affect the aquatic life.
- (vi) **Gamma radiations**
 - Among the radioactive radiations gamma radiations are the most dangerous since they have high energy and big penetrating power.
 - These radiations pass freely in the human body, where they lose energy. They destroy the living cells by converting them into charged particles ions. These charged particles are very reactive and hence disturb cell membrane. Hence it reduces the efficiency of enzymes and even damage genes and chromosomes.
 - All this results in diseases like leukaemia and cancer.
- (vii) **Nuclear Radiations**
In a nuclear reactor, U-235 is used as a nuclear fuel. It undergoes nuclear fission and energy is produced. Nuclear radiations are produced in the processes like mining and enrichment of U-235. These radiations can leak from the reactor and therefore affect the health of the human beings and animals.

Control measures for minimizing radioactive pollution

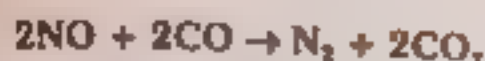
Disposal of Nuclear Waste

The waste material produced in the mining, enrichment and fission of U-235 inside the reactor are called nuclear wastes. At present most of the nuclear wastes are being stored in strong leak proof containers. These will be disposed off whenever a safe method of their disposal is found out.

Using catalytic Converters

A catalytic converter removes pollutant gases from the exhaust by oxidizing or reducing them.

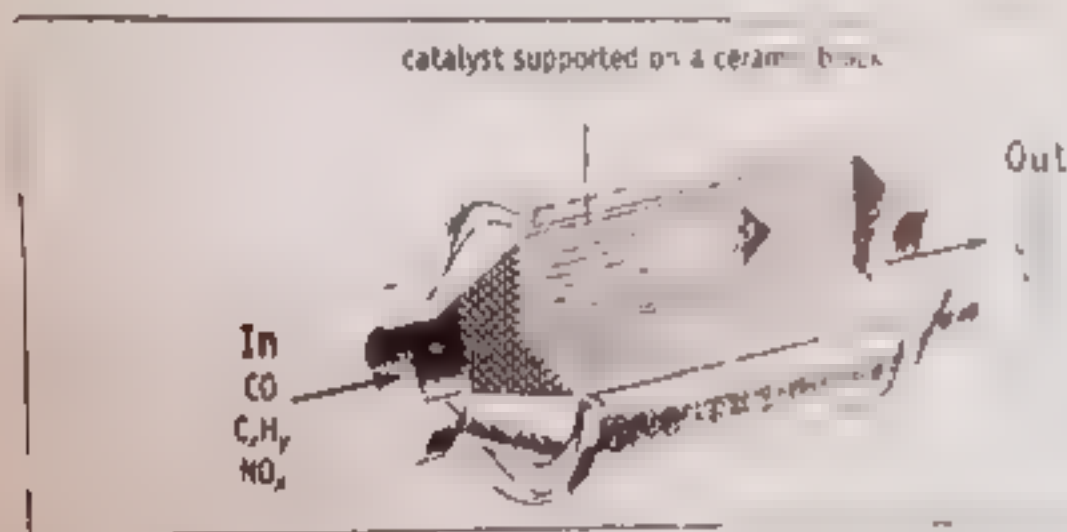
- The exhaust gases pass through a converter containing a precious metal catalyst, usually platinum and rhodium.
- Several reactions may take place.
- NO_x and CO may take part in a redox reaction which neatly removes both of them at the same time.
- NO_x oxidizes CO to CO_2 and is reduced to harmless nitrogen gas.



- CO and C_xH_x are oxidized by air



- For all three of these reactions happen, it is necessary to use a three way converter and to have an oxygen monitor fitted to the engine
- This checks the quantity of oxygen going into the engine to make sure there is enough to carry out the oxidation reactions.
- The overall result of passing exhaust gases through this kind of catalyst system is to convert CO, NO, and C_xH_x to relatively harmless N_2 , CO_2 and H_2O
- The catalytic reactions do not start working until the catalyst has reached a temperature of about 200°C so they are not effective until the engine has warmed up
- Catalyst systems of this type cost several hundred pounds. It is mainly because of the high cost of the precious metal they contain. The catalyst is poisoned by lead, so unleaded petrol must be used.



WATER POLLUTION

The waste water from household and industries without treatment to river is dangerous

because:

- It comes from places like factories, farms and industry
- Waste water from manufacturing or chemical processes in industry
- Industrial waste water usually contains specific and readily water soluble substances
- In many cases the pollution in our rivers comes from our homes
- Incorrect plumbing could mean that waste water from dish washers, sinks, and even toilets
- Other impurities include organic materials and plant nutrients
- The main organic materials are food and vegetable waste
- Washing powders, etc.
- These flushed directly into a local river. These 'misconnected' drains pollute rivers and streams, especially in towns and cities
- Today many people dump their garbage into streams, lakes, rivers
- This becomes the final resting place of cans, bottles, plastic, and other refuse
- The various substances used for keeping our homes clean, such as detergents and chemicals

Types of Drainage Systems

There are normally two forms of drainage: surface water and ground water.

i) Surface water drains, or storm drains

These carry rainwater from road surfaces and rooftops into the sea or rivers untreated.

ii) Flow water drains

These carry waste water from toilets, sinks, baths and household appliances to the sewage treatment plant.

This water is treated before it can safely flow back into rivers and streams.

Pollution in America

- Americans generate 1.6 million tons of household hazardous waste per year.
- The average home can accumulate as much as 100 pounds of household hazardous waste in the basement or garage and in storage closets. When improperly disposed of, household hazardous waste can create a risk to people and the environment.
- Paints, cleaners, oils, batteries and pesticides are examples of just a few of the common household hazardous wastes that need special disposal.

Eutrophication

When fresh water is artificially supplemented with nutrients, it results in an abnormal increase in the growth of water plants. This is known as eutrophication.

- The discharge of waste from industries, agriculture and urban communities into water bodies can stretch the biological capacities of aquatic systems.
- Chemical run-off from fields also adds nutrients to water.
- Excess nutrients cause the water body to become choked with organic substances and organisms.
- When organic matter exceeds the capacity of the micro-organisms in water that break down and recycle the organic matter, it encourages rapid growth of algae.
- When the algae die, their remains add to the organic wastes already in the water. Eventually, the water becomes deficient in oxygen.
- Anaerobic organisms (those that do not require oxygen to live) then attack the organic wastes, releasing gases such as methane and hydrogen sulphide. These are harmful to the oxygen-requiring forms of life. The result is a foul-smelling, waste-laden body of water.
- Untreated sewage effluent in the water causes oxygen levels to drop drastically. The sewage settles to the bottom of the watercourse like a blanket. In more severe cases, the river can no longer support fish, insects and animals that live in and around the water.

Effects of Polluted Water

- Polluted water is unsuitable for drinking, recreation, agriculture and industry.
- It diminishes the aesthetic quality of lakes and rivers.
- More seriously, contaminated water destroys aquatic life and reduces its reproductive ability.
- Eventually, it is a hazard to human health. Nobody can escape the effects of water pollution.
- Once an aquifer is contaminated, it may be unusable for decades. The residence time can be anywhere from two weeks or 10,000 years.

The Biggest Source of Air Pollution:

- The biggest source of air pollution is automobiles
- In past there was bull cart, donkey carts animals were used by
- Now-a-days Aeroplane cars, buses and trains are used for transportations. These vehicles need energy for their working in the form of petrol or gas to provide energy for motion of vehicle
- The end product of this burning include energy plus different gasses include hydrocarbons, Nitrogen oxides carbon monoxide, Benzene sulphur heavy metals and particles. These gases enter into air and pollute in when human breath in such polluted environment it causes asthma, coughing, nausea, chest pain, bronchitis diseases etc.

- It is estimated that usually 24000 deaths occur due to air pollution because pollution damage central Nervous System
- Automobiles are responsible for depletion of ozone in stratosphere sheet because of source of CFCs entering the atmosphere which is escape from vehicle air condition AC's
- Vehicles are responsible
 - ✓ for 80% pollution in metropolitan region
 - ✓ three fold increases in energy consumption for global warming It is because burning of fuel produces CO_2

(1) Ways to improve the impact of cars.

Ways to improve impacts of car like uses of small cars clearer cars etc etc are compulsory and use of bioheral The following measures may be taken

- (a) **Use of Fuel cells** It cause only water comes out as its exhaust. electric vehicle price is high because of range of batteries and seep
- (b) **Use of Hybrid electric petrol** It cut down the fuel wastage and use the petrol energy on the board e.g. In Delhi they demolished the buses run on diesel
- (c) **Restrict the access to the cities or part of cities**
e.g. Chester York, Oxford have given free space for parking at the city center
- (d) **Improve information about road condition and public transport**
e.g. Zurich zone referendum given the priority to trams/trolleys, buses making provision for 50% of all the trips as by means of public transport
- (e) **Polluter pay**
It is another solution where the pollution emitted by the car is charged and the price is changed on the basis of level multiplies the distance travel

Several technological innovations have been made from 1970 onwards. Technological improvements include

- Technological changes to reduce cooling zone of engine wall and reduce monoxide emission.
- Computer control at IC engine
- Catalytic converter technology (CCT) emission
- Trap oxidizers and ceramic filter on Diesel vehicles
- Direct injection fuel efficient Diesel

OZONE

Occurance

- Ozone layer is found in the stratosphere approximately 10-20 km above the earth's surface.
- Ozone molecules have three atoms of oxygen instead of two.

Advantage

- The ozone layer protects us from the harmful effects of radiation coming from the sun, specially UVB.
- Any significant decrease in ozone in the atmosphere would result in more radiation reaching the earth surface.
- Increase in levels of UVB radiation can result in the increase of skin cancer, cataracts, eye disorder including cataract and effect plants, animals and plastic material.

Ozone depletion

- In 1985 scientists discovered that there is severe ozone depletion in the Antarctic confirmed by American Satellite observations.
- Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) were invented in 1928 found many uses as refrigerators, air conditioners, solvent, fire extinguishers etc. these CFCs are long lived and stable in the stratosphere and cause ozone depletion. This has been dramatically formed the ozone hole.
- The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) has been addressing the issue of the ozone layer since 1977 and in 1981 UNEP's Governing Council set up a working group to develop a global framework convention for protection of ozone layer.
- By reducing the use of CFCs we can protect ozone layer for saving the environment.
- Montreal protocol on substances that deplete the ozone layer was finally agreed in 1987 and adopted by the Government in this protocol ozone depleting substances are controlled.

Alternatives to ozone-depleting halocarbons

- Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and perfluorocarbons (PFCs) are alternative technologies.
- These are being used to replace ODS in industrial and commercial applications and are more widespread.
- Other alternatives to ODS include ammonia, carbon dioxide and hydrocarbons.

The relationship between ozone-depleting substances and their halocarbon alternatives and global warming

- Ozone depleting substances (ODS) and their halocarbon alternatives have a high global warming potential and contribute to climate change.
- The production of some ozone depleting substances (e.g. CFCs) has been phased out and emission reductions of ozone-depleting substances into the atmosphere.
- However, emissions of other ODS (e.g. hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) and hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs)) is expected to continue to increase.
- HFCs are ODS refrigerants alternatives and their use is becoming more widespread.
- Although HFCs have no ozone-depletion potential they do have high global warming potential thousands of times more potent greenhouse gases than carbon dioxide.
- Regulations that prevent or minimize ODS and other halocarbon emissions have a benefit of lowering emissions that destroy the ozone layer and contribute to climate change.

Are ozone-depleting substances still an important environmental concern?

Although the production and use of many ozone-depleting substances has been phased out, the release of such emissions continues to be an important environmental concern. The depletion of the stratospheric ozone layer causes increased health risks and environmental impacts, such as cataracts, skin cancer, and climate change.

NATURAL WATER PURIFICATION METHODS

There are several, natural ways that you can purify water.

- In the event of an emergency it may become necessary to purify the water for drinking in order to avoid getting sick.
- Though many people think purifying water is difficult. However, there are a number of simple, natural means of purifying water that can easily be used in an emergency.

SAND

- One of the most common ways that water is purified is by passing it through sand and soil.
- If contaminated water (say urine) is poured into the ground, the water is going to travel down until it reaches the saturation level.
- The other chemicals that are mixed with the water will be absorbed by the sand until only the water is left.

This method of water purification is used in many sewage treatment facilities as a big part of separating water out of the waste that goes through the plant.

BOILING

- Water can be boiled to make it more pure.
- Boiling water kills bacteria and other germs in the water.
- **Procedure:**
 - ✓ Water is poured into a sealed pot, with a tube leading out of it.
 - ✓ The water turns into steam, and the steam escapes through the tube.
 - ✓ The tube transports the steam to another container, where the steam condenses back into water.
 - ✓ This process can eliminate more contaminants than boiling, but it is also more complicated.

CLOTH FILTRATION

- Cloth filters can be used to help keep larger contaminants out of water.
- **Procedure:**
 - ✓ This process is very simple.
 - ✓ Pour the water through a cloth or through several layers of cloth.
 - ✓ The cloth's weave will strain the water and hold back impurities.
 - ✓ This is the same process that happens when a coffee filter is used, except that the filter is paper rather than cloth.
 - ✓ Paper can work as well.
 - ✓ The coffee filters or similar devices may be used instead of a clean cloth.

How rain water seepage through hazardous waste dumpsites can dissolve in drinking water supplies

Hazardous waste:

Hazardous waste is waste that is dangerous or potentially harmful to our health or the environment.

- Hazardous wastes can be liquids, solids, gases, or sludges
- They can be discarded commercial products like cleaning fluids or pesticides or the by-products of manufacturing processes
- It is very important to dispose of hazardous waste carefully, otherwise it contaminates the air and soil.

Groundwater:

Groundwater is rain water or water from surface water bodies, like lakes or streams that soaks into the bedrock. It is stored underground in the tiny spaces between rocks and particles of soil.

Groundwater contaminants come from two categories of sources

Point sources

These are Landfills, leaking gasoline storage tanks, leaking septic tanks and accidental spills

Non-point sources

Infiltration from farm land treated with pesticides and fertilizers is an example of a non point source

- Among the more significant point sources are municipal landfills and industrial waste disposal sites. Either of these occur in or near sand and gravel aquifers, the potential for widespread contamination is greatest
- Leaks of petroleum products have been increasing over the last two decades. It is because underground storage tanks installed in large numbers in the 1950s and 1960s have become corroded. Before 1980 most underground tanks were made of steel. Without adequate corrosion protection, up to half of them are the time they are 15 years old.
- Groundwater dissolves many different compounds. Most of these substances have the potential to contaminate large quantities of water e.g., one litre of gasoline can contaminate 1000 litres of groundwater. This problem is particularly severe in the Atlantic provinces where there is a high concentration of groundwater. In many cases, the problem is noticed long after the aquifer is contaminated e.g., when consumers start tasting or smelling gasoline
- Groundwater can become contaminated in many ways. Chemicals from hazardous wastes at unsecured landfills if rain water or surface water comes into contact with contaminated soil, which seeps into the ground, it can become polluted and can carry the pollution from the soil to the groundwater. Contaminants can also spread to wells or surface water making it unsafe to drink
- Groundwater can also become contaminated when liquid hazardous substances themselves seep through the soil or rock into the groundwater. Some liquid hazardous substances do not mix with groundwater but remain pooled within the soil or bedrock. These pooled substances can act as local sources of groundwater contamination as the groundwater flows through the soil or rock and comes in contact with them
- Groundwater contamination is extremely difficult, and sometimes impossible to clean up
- Apart from chemical pollutants the major culprits are Bacteria and Viruses which cause most commonly found water borne diseases.

Bacterial diseases: Gastro-enteritis Typhoid, Cholera, Paratyphoid, Dysentery and Diarrhea

Viral diseases: Polio, Dysentery, Gastro-enteritis, Diarrhea and Jaundice, Hepatitis

REPLACING CFCs

- Few compounds have CFCs combination of non-flammability, non-toxicity and inertness. For uses such as refrigeration and aerosols it is necessary to find compounds with exactly the right boiling point.
- **Hydrofluorocarbon (HFCs).**
Some of the important replacements for these uses are the hydrofluorocarbons. CFCs (also known as hydrofluorocarbon or HFCs.) An example is 1,1,1,2-tetrafluoroethane $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{F}_3$, which is used as a refrigerant.
- **HFCs are comparatively safe.**
 - ✓ HFCs have the advantage that they contain no Cl atoms, so they do not release damaging Cl radicals in the stratosphere.
 - ✓ Moreover, their molecules include C-H bonds, which are relatively reactive. It means that these compounds break down in the atmosphere more quickly than CFCs so they do not persist for so long.

EXERCISE

Q1: Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

- (i) Air is polluted by:
a) Toxic materials (b) Hydrocarbons (c) Harmful gases (d) All of above
- (ii) Which of following gas is not pollution?
a) SO_2 (b) CO (c) CO_2 (d) NO_x
- (iii) Oxides of sulfur and nitrogen react with oxygen to form:
a. Bases (b) Acids (c) Salts (d) All of above
- (iv) Oxidizing smog consists of high concentration of
a) SO_2 (b) Ozone (c) NO₂ (d) Cl₂
- (v) Thickness of ozone is.
(a) 20-25 km (b) 25-28km (c) 30-32km (d) 20-30km
- (vi) Ozone is destroyed by:
a) SO_2 (b) NO_x (c) Chlorofluorocarbons (d) None of above
- (vii) In leather industry:
(a) Chromium (VI) is used (b) Chromium (III) is used (c) Nickel is used (d) Aluminum is used
- (viii) Water is purified:
(a) Aeration (b) Coagulation (c) Disinfection (d) All of above
- (ix) The Ecosystem is the smaller unit of:
(a) Biosphere (b) Lithosphere (c) Atmosphere (d) Hydrosphere
- (x) When chlorine is passed through water then the disinfection is done due to the production?
(a) HCl (b) HOCl (c) NOCl (d) HClO₂
- (xi) Peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) is an irritant to human beings and it affects
(a) eyes (b) ears (c) stomach (d) nose
- (xii) Fungicides are the pesticides which
(a) control the growth of fungus (b) kill insects (c) kill plants (d) kill bacteria

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

(i) Ans: (d) All of above Air is polluted by toxic materials like PAN, hydrocarbons and gases like SO_2 etc	(ii) Ans: (c) CO_2 CO_2 is generally not considered as pollutant as it is essential for plants for photosynthesis
(iii) Ans: (b) Acids This is the cause of acid rain	(iv) Ans: (b) Ozone Ozone is present in stratosphere at 25-28 km
(v) Ans: (b) 25-28km The thickness of ozone in stratosphere is 25-28 km	(vi) Ans: (c) Chlorofluorocarbons Chlorofluorocarbons are responsible for ozone depletion
(vii) Ans: (a) Chromium (VI) is used Chromium (VI) is used in leather industry	(viii) Ans: (d) All of above All of these processes are used for water purification
(ix) Ans: (a) Biosphere In ecosystem both living and non-living environment is present and it is a biosphere	(x) Ans: (b) HOCl HOCl is responsible for disinfection of water
(xi) Ans: (a) eyes PAN causes irritation in eyes	(xii) Ans: (a) control the growth of fungus Fungicides are used to control the growth of fungus

Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

- (i) What are components of environment?
(a. Atmosphere (b) Hydrosphere
(c. Lithosphere (d) Biosphere
- (ii) Briefly discuss the role of atmosphere in our environment?
Our surrounding on earth is called atmosphere are very important

- (a) These gases absorb harmful radiations like α rays and electromagnetic radiation life on earth. Otherwise these rays are very harmful to living things on earth.
- (b) N_2 is used by nitrogen fixing bacteria.
- (c) O_2 is necessary for breathing in animals.
- (d) CO_2 is necessary for photosynthesis in plants and.
- (e) Water vapours are responsible for sustaining life on earth.

(III) Enlist different layers of our atmosphere

Atmosphere has been divided into five layers.

- 1 Troposphere 2 Stratosphere 3 Mesosphere 4 Thermosphere

(iv) What are sources of air pollution?

Sources of air pollution are

- (a) Nitrogen oxides (NO and NO_2)
 (b) Oxides of sulphur (SO_2 and SO_3)
 (c) Volatile organic compounds (VOCs).
 (d) Carbon monoxide (CO)

(v) What are the important air pollutants?

Important air pollutants are

- (a) Nitrogen oxides
 (b) Sulphur oxides
 (c) Peroxyacetyl nitrates
 (d) Peroxybenzoi
 (e) Volatile organic compounds
 (f) Carbon monoxide

(vi) What are the sources of CO emission? Discuss its effects

Source of CO

- Incomplete combustion of carbon containing fuels (CO)
- Incomplete combustion of agricultural of slush matter (CO)
- During the reaction in blast furnace (CO)
- Cigarette smoke (CO)

Effects

- Causes Anoxia (Oxygen Starvation) result suffocation
- Causes Green house and Global Warming results climatic changes.
- Causes Acid rain
- Causes Acid rain
- Respiratory irritation

(vii) Differentiate between (i) industrial and photochemical smog (ii) Primary and secondary pollutants.

a. Industrial smog

Under the right conditions, the smoke and sulfur dioxide produced from the burning of coal can combine with fog to create industrial smog.

b. Photochemical smog

It is a condition that develops when primary pollutants (oxides of nitrogen and volatile organic compounds created from fossil fuel combustion) interact under the influence of sunlight to produce a mixture of hundreds of different and hazardous chemicals known as secondary pollutants.

Primary Pollutants

The pollutants which directly comes into the atmosphere from the source are called primary pollutants.

e.g. oxides of nitrogen and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) created from fossil fuel combustion etc.

Secondary Pollutants

The pollutants which are derived from primary pollutants by chemical reactions in the atmosphere are called secondary pollutants

e.g. sulphuric acid, nitrogen monoxide, carbonic acid, hydrofluoric acid, peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN)

(viii) How does photochemical smog differ from reducing smog?

Photochemical smog is a condition that develops when primary pollutants, oxides of nitrogen and volatile organic compounds created from fossil fuel combustion, interact under the influence of sunlight to produce a mixture of hundreds of different and hazardous chemicals known as secondary pollutants. While reducing smog is formed when smoke and sulphur dioxide produced from burning of coal combine with fog.

(ix) What is global warming?

When sunlight consists of ultraviolet rays, visible light and infrared rays falls on the top of the atmosphere the harmful ultra violet rays are absorbed by O_3 layer and hence do not reach on the other hand, the visible light and infrared rays pass through the CO_2 layer and hits on the earth because the infrared radiations have heating effect they heat the earth and its objects. This is called global warming.

(x) What are the latest predictions about global warming?

- If the atmosphere contains too much quantity of CO_2 the green house effect is considerably increased.
- Thus due to excess quantity of CO_2 present in the atmosphere the temperature of the earth is increased too much. This too much high temperature melts all the glaciers, snow mountains, floods the low-lying areas of the earth.
- It also changes the biological Activity of oceans and the patterns of cropping etc.

(xi) What gases are responsible for green house effects?

The gases are

- (a) CO_2 and CO (b) Methane (c) CFCs (d) Nitrogen oxides

(xii) Briefly discuss effects of acid rain.

- It makes the lakes so acidic that they can no longer support fish etc.
- The yield of agricultural crops is also reduced.
- HNO_3 acid rain gradually eats up lime stone and marble of the buildings and corrodes metals.
- It fades the color of fabrics (e.g. cotton, nylon and rayon) leather and paper.
- Causes extensive leaf-drop in plants.
- It is very corrosive and attacks skin.
- Acidification of soil and rocks can leach metals like Al, Hg, Pb and Cu and discharge them into water bodies. It also damages steel, paint, plastic, cement, masonry work and sculpture etc.

(xiii) What are sources and environmental effects of? (a) VOCs (b) PAN

Page 462 given in Table

(xiv) What are effects of excess of CO_2 present in atmosphere?

- If the atmosphere contains too much quantity of CO_2 the green house effect is considerably increased.
- Thus, due to excess quantity of CO_2 present in the atmosphere the temperature of the earth is increased too much. This too much high temperature melts all the glaciers, snow mountains, floods the low-lying areas of the earth.
- It also changes the biological Activity of oceans and the patterns of cropping etc.

(xv) Discuss the sources and typical effects of SO_2 as pollutant

Page 462 given in Table

(xvi) Briefly discuss the sources and typical effects of oxides of nitrogen

Page 462 given in Table

xxv) What is ozone? How does it work as antioxidant?

The ozone (O_3) is the protective layer in the atmosphere.

The thickest layer of O_3 exists at a height of 10-15 km. It absorbs the harmful ultraviolet radiations coming from the sun. Thus it saves the life on earth.

xxvi) How ozone is formed in stratosphere?

O_3 is produced in the upper part of the atmosphere by the reaction



Some O_3 is produced by cosmic rays and some by lightning.

xxvii) What do you know about "Ozone hole"?

In 1985, scientists discovered that there is severe ozone depletion

chlorofluorocarbons reach stratosphere and cause ozone depletion.

Through Antarctic ozone hole

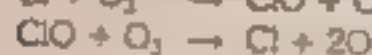
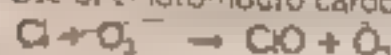
xxviii) How is ozone layer depleting?

i) oxides of nitrogen in the atmosphere converts O_3 into O_2



Nuclear tests generate high temperature. Due to this the nitrogen is released into the ozone layer.

ii) Use of chloro-fluoro carbons destroy ozone layer by decomposing O_3 into O_2



xxix) What are the effects of ozone layer depletion?

If O_3 layer in the atmosphere disappears completely then all the harmful ultraviolet rays from the sun would reach the earth. It would cause skin cancer in men and animals and damage the plants. Hence All the life on earth would then gradually be destroyed.

xxx) What should we do to save ozone?

In order to save the destruction of O_3 layer by fluoro-chloro carbons, the use should be restricted. Some new types of substances should be discovered which may be used as aerosol sprays. They should not react with O_3 layer.

Leaded petrol should be used in automobiles.

xxxi) What is water pollution? Write different types of water pollution?

The contamination of water with the substances which have adverse effects on human beings and plants is called water pollution.

Sources of water pollution are

- Oil spillage
- Live-stock waste
- Industrial waste
- Leather tanneries

xxxii) Briefly discuss the effects of water pollution.

- Polluted water is unsuitable for drinking, recreation, agriculture and industry.
- It diminishes the aesthetic quality of lakes and rivers.
- The contaminated water destroys aquatic life and reduces its reproductive ability.
- The polluted water causes several diseases.

Q2) How preliminary treatment of waste water is done?

In Preliminary treatment most of the suspended particles are removed which are visible

Q3) What is primary treatment of waste water?

Primary treatment involves the removal of sand particles and other particles which are visible

Q4) What is secondary treatment of waste water?

Secondary treatment involves:

- Solids removal
- Oils and greases
- Soft organics
- Hard organics
- Acid and alkalis
- Toxic materials

Q5) How would avoid from thermal pollution?

The companies use hot water in cooling their generators. When hot water is released in water bodies it decreases the solubility of dissolved oxygen. Thus cause serious threat to life in water. So the companies should decrease the temperature of hot water before discharging into water bodies.

Q3: Give detailed answers for the following questions.

(i) Describe different chemical reaction occurring in our atmosphere

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(ii) Write a comprehensive note on acid rain.

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(iii) How would you control air pollution? Describe different methods.

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(iv) What is Thermal Pollution? Discuss its sources and environmental effects.

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(v) What is waste water treatment? Discuss different methods of it.

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(vi) Write a note on Green Chemistry.

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TEST YOUR SKILLS

Marks: 85

OBJECTIVE

Time: 20 Minutes

Marks: 17

Note: Q1 Circle the correct option i.e. A B C (D) Each part carries one mark

- a) by plants for photosynthesis b) by nitrogen fixing bacteria

An example of primary pollutant is

- a) Oxides of nitrogen
c) H_2SO_4
d) both a & b

Branchial constriction

- iv) Which of the following is not a pollutant?
(a) SO_2 b) NO_2 c) CO (d) All

- v) Which of the following is not a pollutant?
a) Al b) Al , Hg , Pb , Cd

- vi) The thickest layer of O_3 is found at
a) 23 km (b) 25 km (c) 27m (d) 2

- vii) Which of the following gas is not a pollutant?
a) SO_2 b) CO (c) CO_2 (d) H_2

- viii) Oxidizing smog consists of high concentration of
a) SO_2 b) ozone (c) NO_2 (d) H_2

- ix) The oxidation state of Cr in $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ is
a) +3 (b) +6 (c) +5 (d) +2

- x) The Ecosystem is the smallest unit of
a) Biosphere

- xi) Which of the following is not a disinfectant?
a) HCl (b) HOCl (c) NOCl (d) H_2O_2

- xii) Water is purified by
a) Aeration (b) Coagulation (c) Disinfection (d) All

- xiii) Which of the following is not a pollutant?
(a) Pb

- xiv) Which of the following is not a pollutant?
a) CO_2 (b) SO_2 (c) NH_4^+ (d) all

- xv) The total number of groundwater is
a) 1000000 (b) 10000000 (c) 100000000 (d) 1000000000

- xvi) Which of the following is not a disease?
(a) Jaundice

- xvii) Which non-metallic elements are generally resistant to biogeochemical processes unless very diluted?
a) Arsenic (b) selenium (c) both a & b (d) None

Time: 2:35 Hours

(B) SUBJECTIVE

Total Marks Section B and C: 68

Q2. Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not exceed 5 to 6 lines

- i) What are the sources of environmental pollution? (02)
ii) Write about the sources of atmospheric pollution. (01)
iii) What are the sources of environmental pollution? (02)
iv) What are the sources of environmental pollution? (01)
v) Which compounds are known to begin the chemical process of photochemical smog development? (03)
vi) PAN stands for what? (01)
vii) What is acid rain? (02)
viii) Write about the sources & environmental effects of VOCs. (03)
ix) How is acid rain formed by oxides of nitrogen? (03)
x) How is acid rain produced? (02)

- (b) Enlist the possible alternatives of the use of CFCs (01,
(ix) (a) Which diseases are caused by live stock? (1.5)
(b) What is swamp? (1.5)
(x) (a) What is green Chemistry? (02)
(b) What is synthetic efficiency? (01)
(xi) Give principles of green chemistry (03)
(xii) (a) How would you avoid from thermal pollution? (02)
(b) Give two examples of fluoro - chloro carbons? (01)
(xiii) What is secondary treatment of waste water? (1.5)
(b) What is primary treatment of water? (1.5)
(xiv) Briefly discuss the effect of water pollution. (03)
(xv) (a) What is global warming? (1.5)
(b) Which factors are playing major role in global warming? (1.5)
(xvi) Discuss the sources & typical effects of oxides of S as pollutant (03)
(xvii)(a) What are the latest predictions about global warming? (02)
(b) What gases are responsible for greenhouse effect? (01)
(xviii) What are the effects of ozone layer depletion? (03)
(xix)(a) What are the important air pollutants? (1.5)
(b) What should we do to save ozone? (1.5)

Section - C

Note: Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. (2 × 13 = 26)

1. (a) What are the effects of acid rain? (04)
(b) Is CO₂ responsible for green house effect? If yes then How? (04)
(c) How we can control the air pollution caused by hydrocarbons & CO? (05)
2. (a) What is radioactive pollution? What are sources of radioactive pollution & its effects? (1)
(b) What are control measures for minimizing radioactive pollution? (04)
(c) Write two salient principles of green chemistry (04)
3. (a) What are different treatments of industrial wastewater? (01)
(b) How following parameters help up to determine the quality of water? (04)
i) BOD ii) COD
(c) What are suspended solid & sediments? How they are caused? (04)

CHAPTER # 24

ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY

Analytical Chemistry

Analytical chemistry is the branch of chemistry that deals with separation and analysis of a substance into its components.

The separation is followed by either qualitative and quantitative analysis.

Qualitative analysis

Qualitative analysis provides the identity of a substance (composition of chemical species).

Quantitative analysis

Quantitative analysis determines the amount of each component present in the sample.

Scope of Analytical Chemistry

In analytical chemistry, different techniques and instruments used for analysis are studied. This branch covers food, water, environmental and clinical analysis.

CLASSICAL METHOD OF ANALYSIS

Exercise Q3 (f), What is combustion analysis? Describe its different steps.

Combustion Analysis and determination of Molecular Formula

The experimental technique by which amount of various elements present in a substance are determined by combustion is called combustion analysis.

- Empirical and molecular formulas for compounds that contain only carbon and hydrogen (carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen $C_xH_yO_z$) can be determined by combustion analysis.
- The only products will be CO_2 and H_2O and these two products of combustion are separated.

Procedure

The steps for this procedure are

- Weigh a sample of the compound to be analyzed and place it in the apparatus shown below.
- Burn the compound completely. The only products of the combustion of a compound that contains only carbon and hydrogen (C_xH_y) or carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen ($C_xH_yO_z$) are carbon dioxide and water.
- The H_2O and CO_2 are drawn through two tubes. One tube contains a substance that absorbs water and the other contains a substance that absorbs carbon dioxide.
- Weigh each of these tubes before and after the combustion. The increase in mass in the first tube is the mass of H_2O that formed in the combustion, and the increase in mass for the second tube is the mass of CO_2 formed.
- Assume that all the carbon in the compound has been converted to CO_2 and trapped in the second tube. Calculate the mass of carbon in the compound from the mass of carbon in the measured mass of CO_2 formed.
- Assume that all the hydrogen in the compound has been converted to H_2O and trapped in the first tube. Calculate the mass of hydrogen in the compound from the mass of hydrogen in the measured mass of water.

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- If the compound contains oxygen as well, subtracting the mass of carbon and hydrogen from the mass of the oxygen sample of compound
- Use this data to determine the empirical and molecular



Fig. Apparatus for Combustion Analysis

Example

Consider a substance called trioxane. Formaldehyde (CH_2O) is unstable as a pure substance, but it can be stabilized as a cyclic trimer, called trioxane, which is a solid. It is often dissolved in a solvent, like water, before use.

The molecular formula of trioxane can be determined from the data from two different experiments.

- In the first experiment, 10.477 g of trioxane is burned, and 25.612 g CO_2 are formed.
- In the second experiment, the molecular mass of trioxane is found to be 90.08 g/mol.

Calculations

We can get the molecular formula of a compound from its empirical formula. To determine the empirical formula, we need to determine the mass in grams of each element in the compound. Thus, we need to perform these general steps:

- Step-I** Determine the grams of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen from the given data.
- Step-II** Determine the empirical formula from the grams of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen.
- Step-III** Determine the molecular formula from the empirical formula and the molecular mass.

Step-I

Since it is assumed that all the hydrogen in the trioxane is converted to water in 17.471 g trioxane is determined by calculating the mass of hydrogen in 17.471 g trioxane.

$$? \text{ g C} = 25.612 \text{ g CO}_2 \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol CO}_2}{44.010 \text{ g CO}_2} \right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol C}}{1 \text{ mol CO}_2} \right) \left(\frac{12.011 \text{ g C}}{1 \text{ mol C}} \right) = 6.9899 \text{ g C}$$

Since it is assumed that all the hydrogen in the trioxane is converted to water in 17.471 g trioxane is determined by calculating the mass of hydrogen in 17.471 g trioxane.

$$? \text{ g H} = 10.477 \text{ g H}_2\text{O} \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O}}{18.0153 \text{ g H}_2\text{O}} \right) \left(\frac{2 \text{ mol H}}{1 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O}} \right) \left(\frac{1.00797 \text{ g H}}{1 \text{ mol H}} \right) = 1.1724 \text{ g H}$$

Since trioxane contains only carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, the mass of oxygen in 17.471 g trioxane is determined by subtracting the masses of carbon and hydrogen from the total mass of trioxane.

$$? \text{ g O} = 17.471 \text{ g trioxane} - 6.9899 \text{ g C} - 1.1724 \text{ g H} = 9.309 \text{ g O}$$

Step-II

We now calculate the empirical formula

$$7 \text{ mol C} = 6.9899 \text{ g C} \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol C}}{12.011 \text{ g C}} \right) = 0.58196 \text{ mol C} \div 0.5818 \approx 1 \text{ mol C}$$

$$7 \text{ mol H} = 1.1724 \text{ g H} \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol H}}{1.00797 \text{ g H}} \right) = 1.1631 \text{ mol H} \div 0.5818 \approx 2 \text{ mol H}$$

$$7 \text{ mol O} = 9.309 \text{ g O} \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol O}}{15.9994 \text{ g O}} \right) = 0.5818 \text{ mol O} \div 0.5818 = 1 \text{ mol O}$$

Step-III

The empirical formula is CH_2O , which can be used to calculate the molecular formula

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Empirical formula mass} &= 12.011 + 2(1.00794) + 15.9994 \\ &= 30.026 \end{aligned}$$

$$n = \frac{\text{molecular mass}}{\text{empirical formula mass}} = \frac{90.079}{30.026} \approx 3$$

Molecular formula $\text{C}_3\text{H}_6\text{O}_3$

Drawbacks

The classical method i.e. combustion analysis is only limited to those organic compounds which contain carbon, hydrogen and oxygen. So there is a need of such methods which explain/identify all atoms/elements present in an organic compounds. Hence now modern methods are used for this purpose.

QUICK QUIZ-1

(1) Give difference between qualitative and quantitative analysis

Qualitative analysis provides the identity of a substance (composition of chemical species)

Quantitative analysis determines the amount of each components present in the sample

(2) Name the products obtained by complete combustion of hydrocarbon

The only products of the combustion of a hydrocarbon are carbon dioxide and water
e.g. $\text{CH}_4 + 2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

(3) How mass of oxygen is calculated if it also present along with carbon and hydrogen

If the compound contains oxygen as well as carbon and hydrogen then the mass of the oxygen is calculated by subtracting the mass of carbon and hydrogen from the total mass of the original sample of compound.

(4) Give general steps used to calculate empirical formula

- Determine the percentage composition of each element in a substance
- Divide the percentage of each element by its atomic mass to get number of gram atoms/moles
- Divide the moles of each element by the smallest number of moles to get atomic ratios
- If atomic ratios are not in simple whole number then multiply with a small suitable number to get number ratio

Thus empirical formula is obtained

(5) Give drawback of combustion analysis

The classical method i.e. combustion analysis is only limited to those organic compounds which contain carbon, hydrogen and oxygen.

MODERN METHODS OF ANALYSIS

- Modern chemistry uses various instruments.
- These instruments are very expensive and work on very expensive sources.

SPECTROSCOPY

Spectroscopy:

Spectroscopy is the study of the interaction of electromagnetic radiation with matter.

Spectroscope:

A spectroscope is an instrument used to study the spectrum of light.

Theory:

When electromagnetic radiation such as infrared shines on a chemical, the radiation interacts with the chemical. The most common example is when chemicals emit or absorb light at a particular frequency. The way a chemical interacts with radiation gives information about its molecules and structure.

Different kinds of radiation interact with chemicals in different ways as shown in the figure below. The effects are given in the table.



Types of Spectroscopy

There are many types of spectroscopy. The following five types of spectroscopy are particularly important to chemists.

These are: infrared, ultraviolet-visible, nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy and mass spectroscopy.

Table

How different types of radiation interact with chemicals

Type of radiation	Frequency range / Hz	Effect on molecule
Ultraviolet	$10^{15} - 10^{17}$	excites the electrons
Visible light	$10^{14} - 10^{15}$	excites the electrons
Infrared	$10^{11} - 10^{12}$	makes bonds vibrate
Microwaves	$10^9 - 10^{11}$	makes molecules rotate
Radio waves	$10^8 - 10^9$	changes the magnetic alignment of the nuclei in some atoms

INFRARED SPECTROSCOPY (IR)

- The molecules absorb infrared (IR) radiation which has a wavelength between 1000 nm and 100,000 nm.
- The commonly used IR radiations have range between about 2500 cm⁻¹ to 600 cm⁻¹.

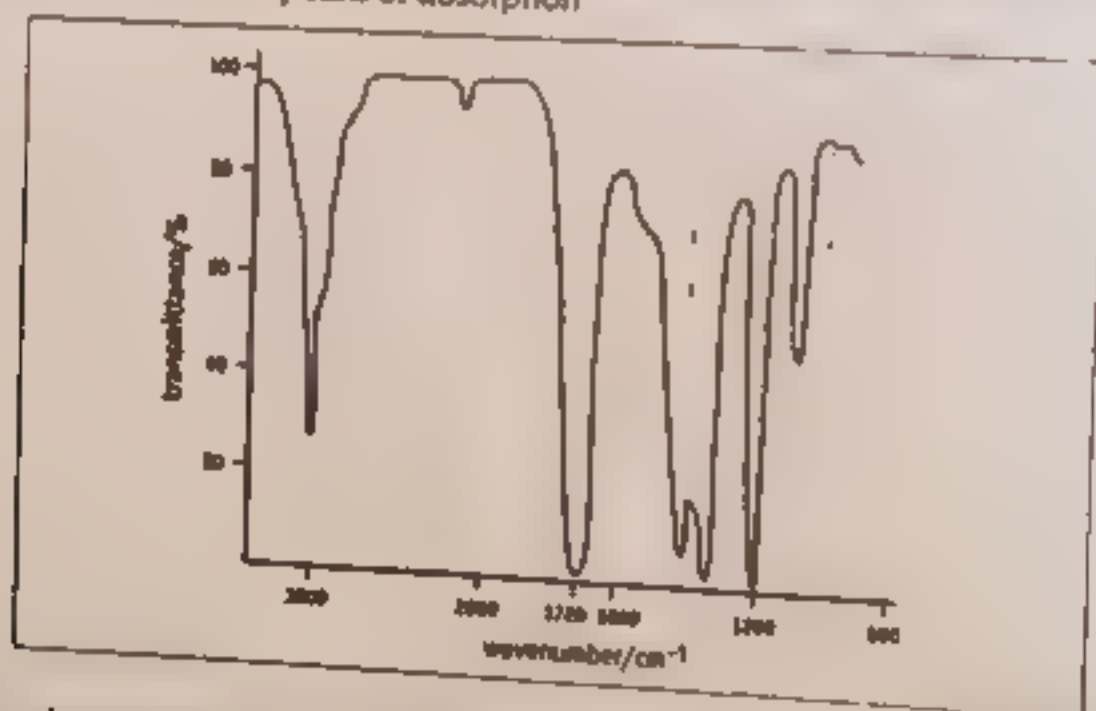
Theory and Importance.

- The energy of the absorbed IR radiation makes the bonds vibrate as shown in the fig. When the molecule absorbs the radiation the bonds vibrate more energetically.
- Different bonds absorb radiation of different frequencies. The absorbed frequency is the characteristic of a particular bond. Thus IR absorption can be used to identify the bonds, and therefore the functional groups in an organic molecule.
- The figure shows that the effect of IR radiations of vibration of HCl. When an HCl molecule absorbs infrared radiation, it vibrates more energetically. The frequency of radiation absorbed is 7.21×10^{14} Hz and this frequency is characteristic of the H-Cl bond.



Interpretation of IR spectrum:

- The IR spectrometer produces an infrared spectrum on a chart recorder as shown in the figure. The spectrum contains several peaks of absorption.



- There are always some characteristic peaks of absorption which can identify functional groups in a molecule. The characteristic absorption of some common bonds is given in the table.
- Infrared spectra are very useful. They are particularly helpful for identifying the functional groups in an unknown compound.
- In IR spectroscopy the strength of the peak is a characteristic of the bond itself, not of the concentration of the sample.
- Most of the interesting parts of an IR spectrum are found in the region above about 1500 cm⁻¹, called the functional group region.
- The peaks below this region are less useful. It is called the fingerprint region. Because it is helpful in identifying the fingerprint of the compound, the characteristic pattern of its IR spectrum. The fingerprint region is used to compare the compound's spectrum with IR spectra of known compounds given in standard reference books.

Example 1. IR spectrum of Propanone (Acetone).

The given spectrum is the IR spectrum of propanone (acetone) CH_3COCH_3

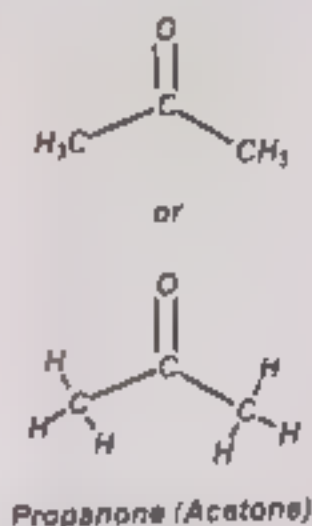
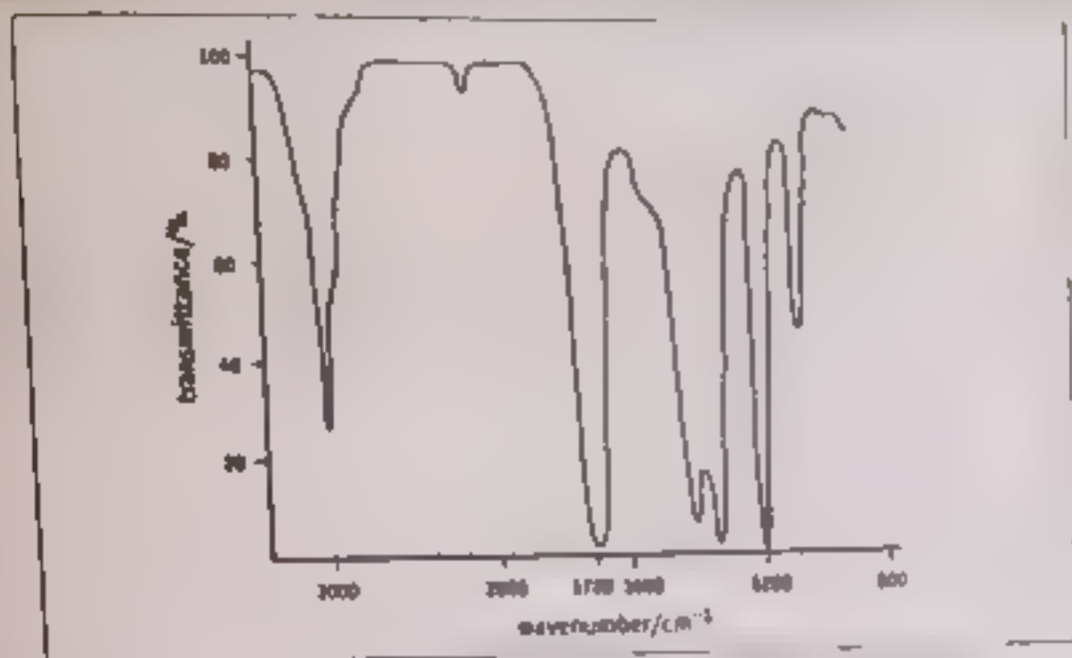


Fig. The infrared spectrum of propanone

- The propanone is a simple molecule with only three types of bond. However, the spectrum is quite complicated. It is because each bond can vibrate in different ways and the vibrations can interact with each other.
- The IR spectrum of propanone consists of two characteristic peaks
 - ✓ The strong peak at about 1720cm^{-1} corresponds to the $\text{C}=\text{O}$ bond.
 - ✓ The weaker absorption at 3000cm^{-1} corresponds to the $\text{C}-\text{H}$ bond. This peak is weaker even though there are more H atoms in the molecule.

Example 2. IR spectrum of Ethanol:

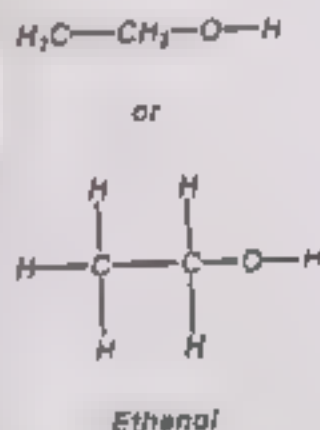
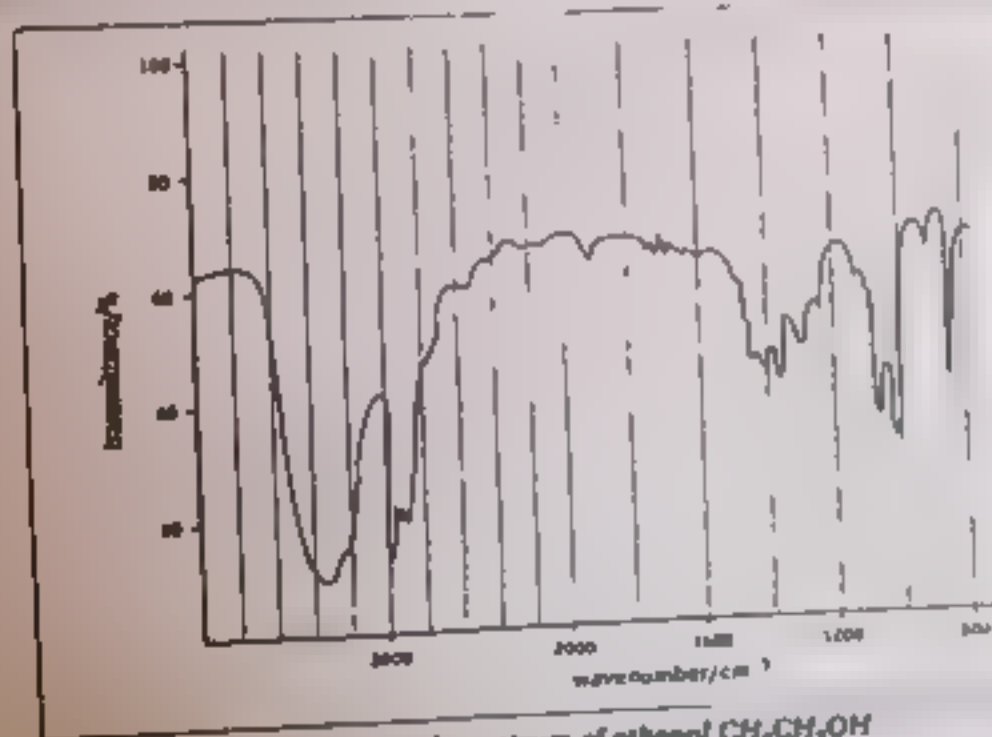


Fig. The infrared spectrum of ethanol $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$

- In the IR spectrum for ethanol following are the characteristic peaks
- The peak just below 3000cm^{-1} is from the $\text{C}-\text{H}$ bonds.
 - The peak at about 3400cm^{-1} is from the $\text{O}-\text{H}$ bond.

QUICK QUIZ-2

Figure 24.5 shows the IR spectrum of ethanol ($\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$). Answer the following questions.

(i) What bond gives rise to the peak just below 3000cm^{-1} ?

This is due to $\text{C}-\text{H}$ stretching vibration.

(ii) What bond gives rise to the peak at about 3400cm^{-1} ?

This is due to $\text{O}-\text{H}$ stretching vibration. The broad peak is due to hydrogen bonding.

ULTRAVIOLET AND VISIBLE SPECTROSCOPY (UV-Vis)

Definition:

When electrons of a substance are excited by ultraviolet or visible radiations of certain frequencies, it absorbs the radiation.

The radiation may be in the ultraviolet or visible region of the electromagnetic spectrum.

Examples and Theory:

- When sodium chloride is heated, it gives off a yellow flame.
- Consider methylene blue as an example. When white light passes through methylene blue, some electrons in the dye's molecules get excited. These electrons absorb certain frequencies of light and change their energy level. The absorbed radiation is in the red end of the spectrum. If red is removed from white light, the light becomes blue. The colour of the solution can only be noticed if light is shining on it. This is an example of a visible absorption spectrum, where a chemical substance absorbs certain frequencies of visible radiation.
- Ultraviolet radiation can be absorbed in a similar way, it is not visible but can be detected by instruments. By finding which frequencies have been absorbed, chemists can get information about the chemical structure of a substance. Consider an aqueous solution of titanium(III) chloride. This contains the octahedral complex ion $[\text{Ti}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{3+}$ and $\text{Cl}^-(\text{aq})$ ions. A solution of titanium(III) chloride is violet. An absorption spectrum shows that the solution absorbs most effectively in the green-yellow region of the spectrum (Figure 24.6). Violet radiations are absorbed less efficiently, so the solution looks violet. Both water and $\text{Cl}^-(\text{aq})$ ions are colourless, so the $\text{Ti}^{3+}(\text{aq})$ ion must be responsible for the colour of the solution.

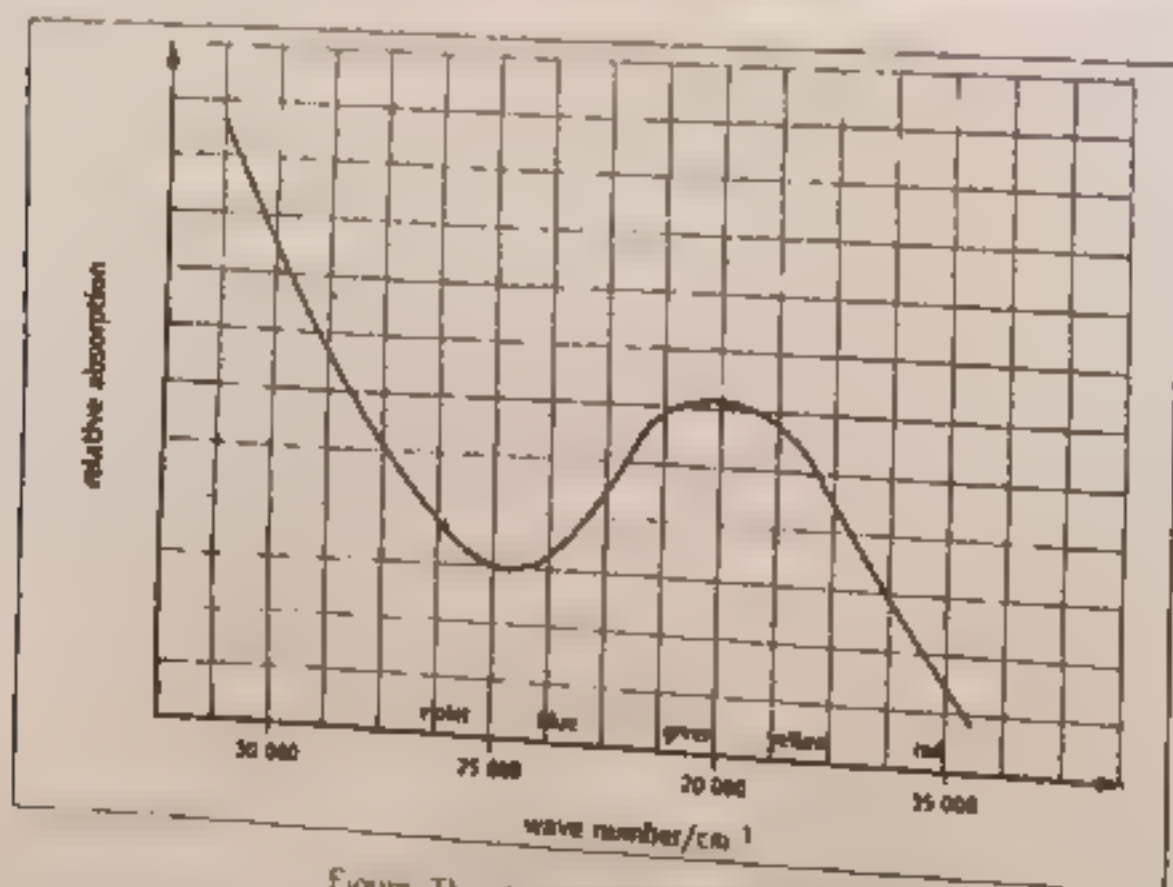


Figure 24.6 The absorption spectrum of $[\text{Ti}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{3+}$.

Importance

By examining the frequencies emitted, chemists can get information about the substance. It particularly gives information about conjugation and extent of conjugation in a substance.

The emission spectrum of hydrogen gave chemists the first clue about the structure of an atom.

Generally, higher the conjugation in a substance, higher will be the wavelength of the radiation absorbed.

Instrumentation and Working

In an ultraviolet/visible spectroscope, radiation consisting of a mixture of visible and ultraviolet light is passed through a sample of a compound.

A detector measures the frequencies of absorbed radiations and produces a graph.

The figure shows the ultraviolet/visible absorption spectrum of methylene blue. The x-axis shows the wavelengths of radiation absorbed in nanometers (nm). The y-axis shows the intensity of absorption, i.e., how strongly it is absorbed.

The ultraviolet/visible spectrum of an organic compound is characteristic of that compound.

The compound can be identified by comparing its spectrum with those of standard compounds.

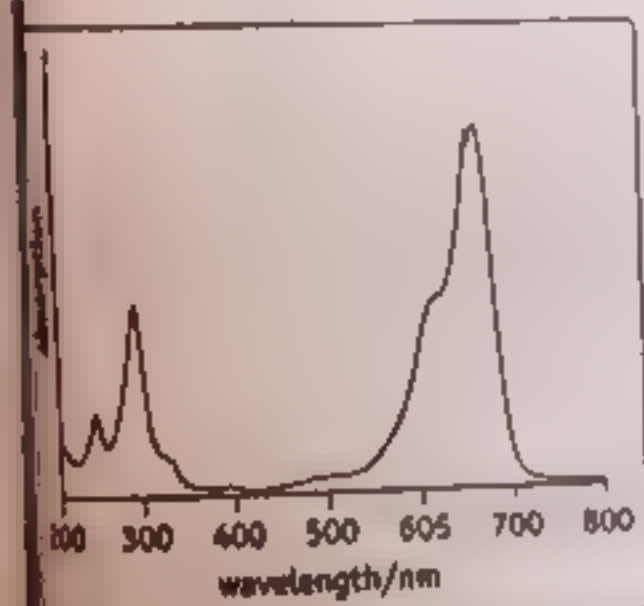


Figure: The visible/UV spectrum of methylene blue

The approximate wavelengths of visible radiation of different colours

Colour	Approximate wavelength/nm
[Infrared]	above 700
red	620-700
orange	600-620
yellow	580-600
green	520-580
blue-green	490-520
blue	440-490
indigo	420-440
violet	400-420
[ultraviolet]	below 400

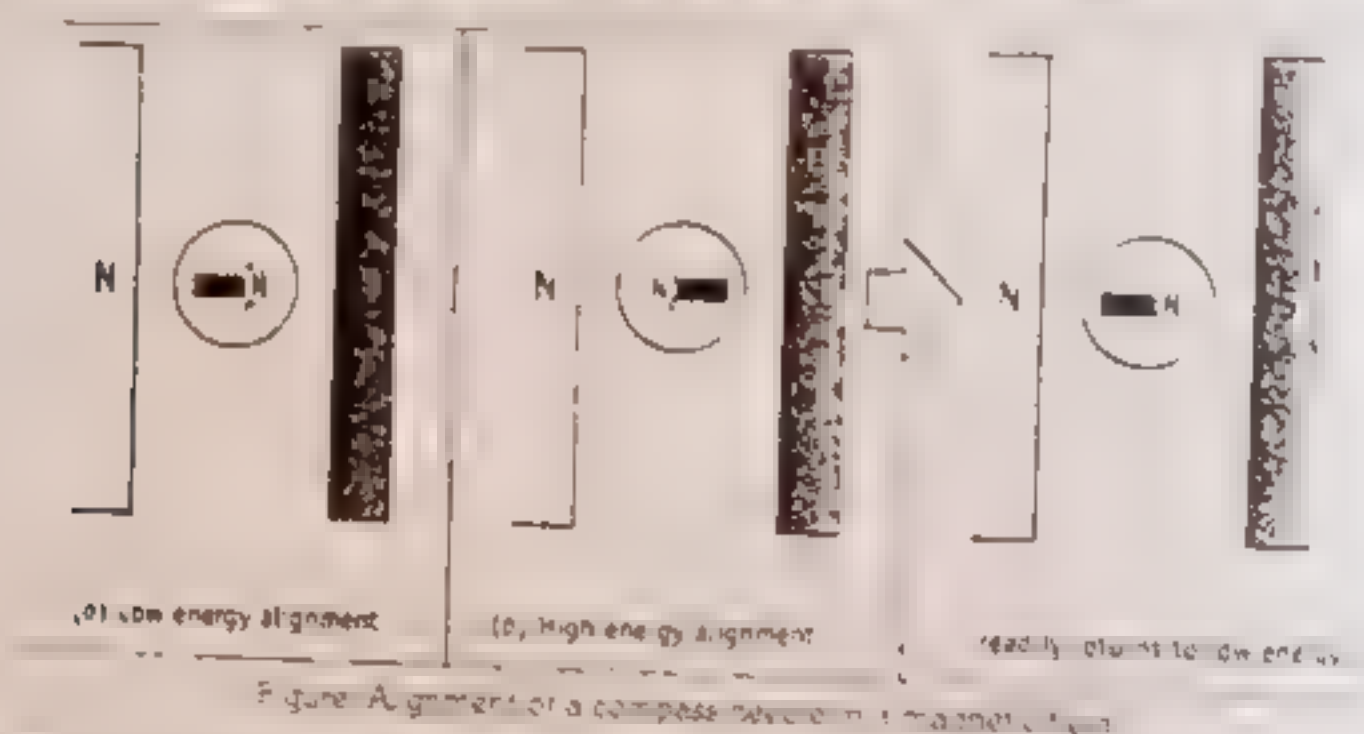
Note:

UV-Vis spectroscopy is an important technique for the detection of compounds. However, other types of spectroscopy, particularly infrared and nuclear magnetic resonance, are more useful for determining the structure of an organic compound.

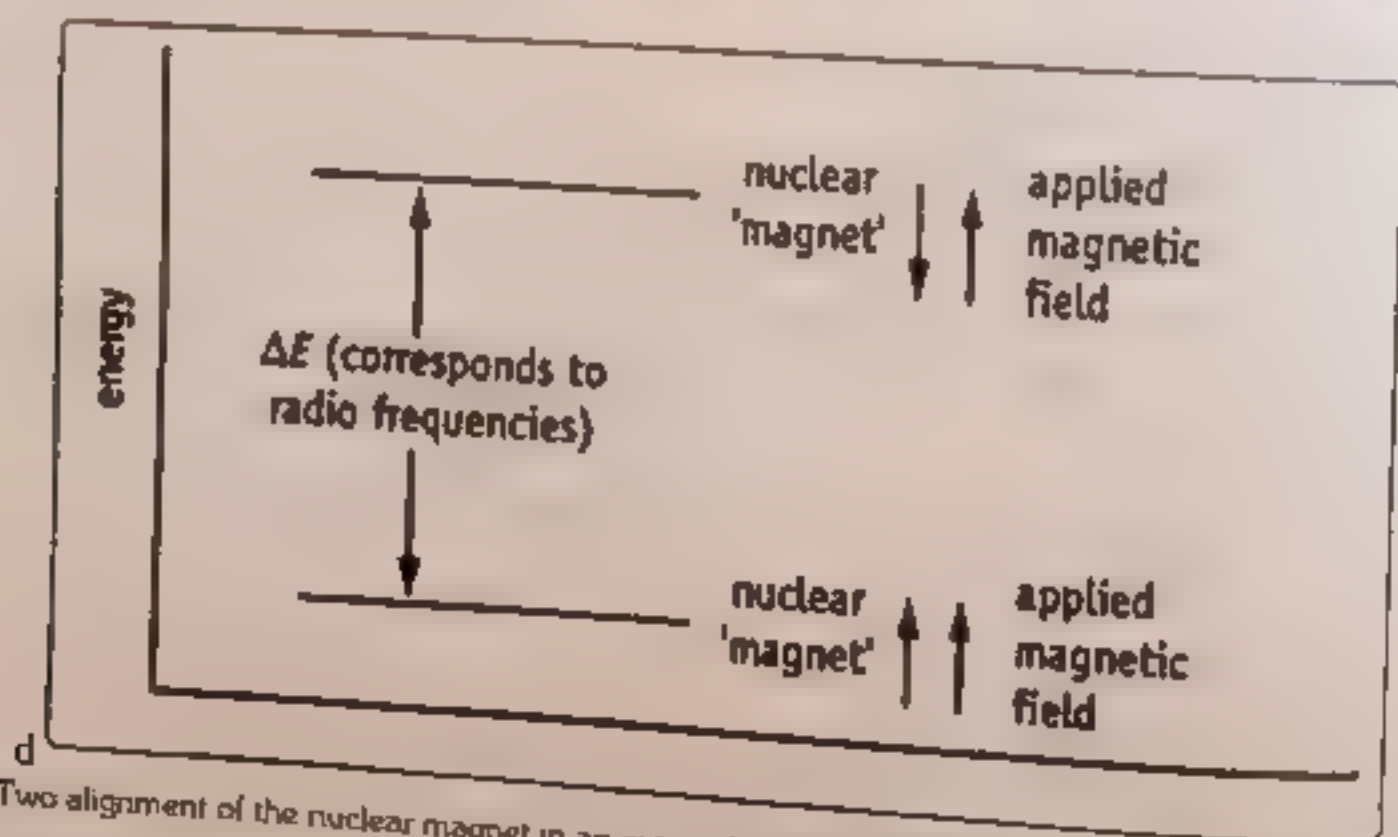
NUCLEAR MAGNETIC RESONANCE (NMR)

Theory

- Any element that has a non-zero nuclear spin, they also possess a magnetic moment and thus possess a magnetic field.
- The electrons in an atom also possess a magnetic field. Hence, an atom is as a whole magnetic and it has a net magnetic field.
- If the sun and the earth are considered as magnets, then the earth acts as a compass needle and it points towards the sun.



- The nuclear magnet can have two alignment of low and high energy, as shown in the diagram. The magnet can be changed from low energy to the high energy alignment by supplying energy, spin flipping.



- Figure: Two alignment of the nuclear magnet in an external magnet field. The energy difference between the two orientations is the basis of the technique of NMR.
- The energy required for spin flipping is provided by radio frequency radiations.

- The exact frequency of energy depends on the environment of the nuclei and electron in its neighborhood
- Hence, when a sample is placed in a strong magnetic field different protons experience different frequencies of radiation. This technique is called nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy
- The result is recorded in the form of an NMR spectrum. In an NMR spectrum the chemical shift values are present on X axis and intensity of absorption on Y axis

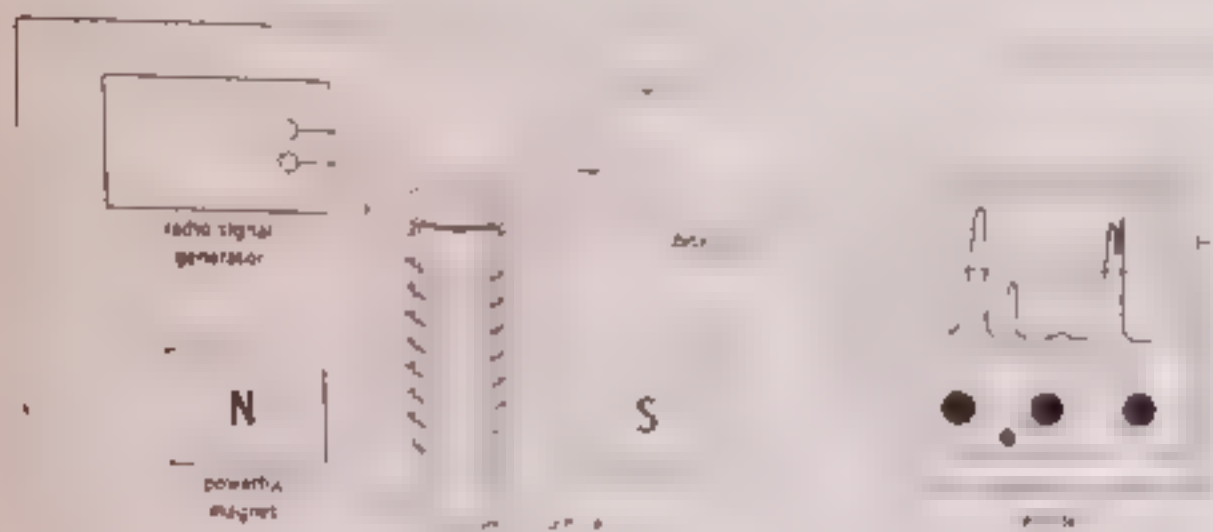


Figure: A simplified NMR spectrometer. The sample is dissolved in a solvent which has nuclei with nuclear magnetic properties.

IMPORTANCE OF NMR

- The technique of NMR is particularly useful for identifying the number and type of hydrogen atoms in a molecule.
- It is also used to find the position of carbon atoms. The common isotope of carbon, ^{12}C , does not have a nuclear magnet but natural carbon contains 1% of the ^{13}C isotope which does show magnetic behavior and can be identified using NMR.

Exercise Q3 (iv) What is meant by the term chemical shift of a particular proton in NMR spectroscopy? Also draw the splitting pattern of protons in NMR spectrum of ethyl alcohol

(ethyl alcohol is an example of both)


CHEMICAL SHIFT

The separation of a signal in NMR spectrum from a reference point is called chemical shift.

It is denoted by δ .

- The H atoms in a particular type of environment have similar positions in the NMR spectrum. Normally this position is measured as a chemical shift from a fixed reference point. The reference point usually used is the absorption of a substance known as TMS. The chemical shift of TMS is set at zero.
- TMS stands for tetramethylsilane, $\text{Si}(\text{CH}_3)_4$. This non-toxic and unreactive substance is used as the NMR reference because its protons give a single peak that is well separated from the signals of most NMR spectra of most organic compounds.

The following table gives the chemical shifts for some common proton environments

Type of proton	Chemical shift, δ , in region of
$R-CH_3$	0.9
$R-CH_2-R$	1.3
$\begin{array}{c} R \\ \\ R-CH-R \end{array}$	2.0
$\begin{array}{c} R \\ \\ -C-CH_2- \\ \\ O \end{array}$	2.3
$-O-CH_3$	3.8
$-O-CH_2-R$	4.0
$-O-H$	5.0
	7.5
$\begin{array}{c} -C=O \\ \\ H \end{array}$	9.5
$\begin{array}{c} -C=O \\ \\ O-H \end{array}$	11.0

Intensity of Absorption

In NMR spectrum the intensity of absorption on Y-axis gives the number of nuclei present in a particular environment. The relative ratio of area under each peak is measured by an integrator present in the spectrometer.

INTERPRETATION OF NMR SPECTRUM

Example I:

- Consider the NMR spectrum of ethylbenzene $C_6H_5CH_2CH_3$ as shown in the figure

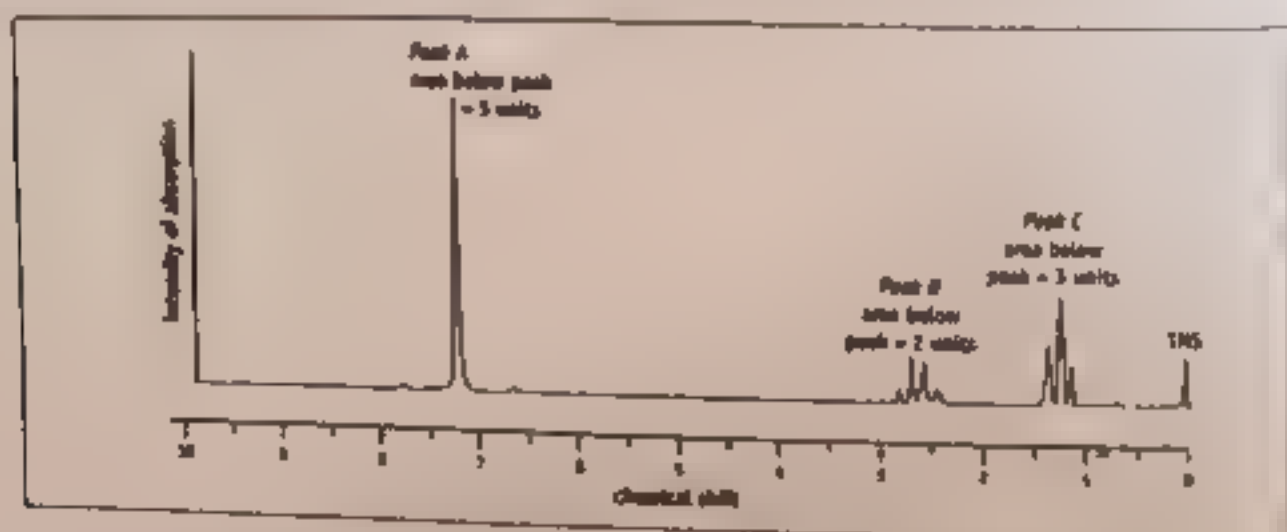


Figure The proton NMR spectrum of ethylbenzene, $C_6H_5CH_2CH_3$

- This is a proton NMR spectrum. The frequencies correspond to the absorption of energy by 1H nuclei which are protons. There are three major peaks of differing heights.

- Each peak corresponds to H atoms in a different magnetic environment. This area under each peak is proportional to the number of that type of H atom in the molecule
- The largest peak (A) corresponds to the 5 H atoms in C_6H_5 , the benzene ring
- The second largest (C) corresponds to the 3 H atoms in the $-CH_3$ group
- The third peak (B) corresponds to the 2 H atoms in the CH_2 group

Example 2-

- The following figure shows a simulated proton NMR spectrum for ethanol CH_3CH_2OH
- It has been simplified by removing some of the detail, so the peaks appear singlet
- The peak for TMS is also present
- The integrated trace is also shown which gives the relative areas under each of the peaks

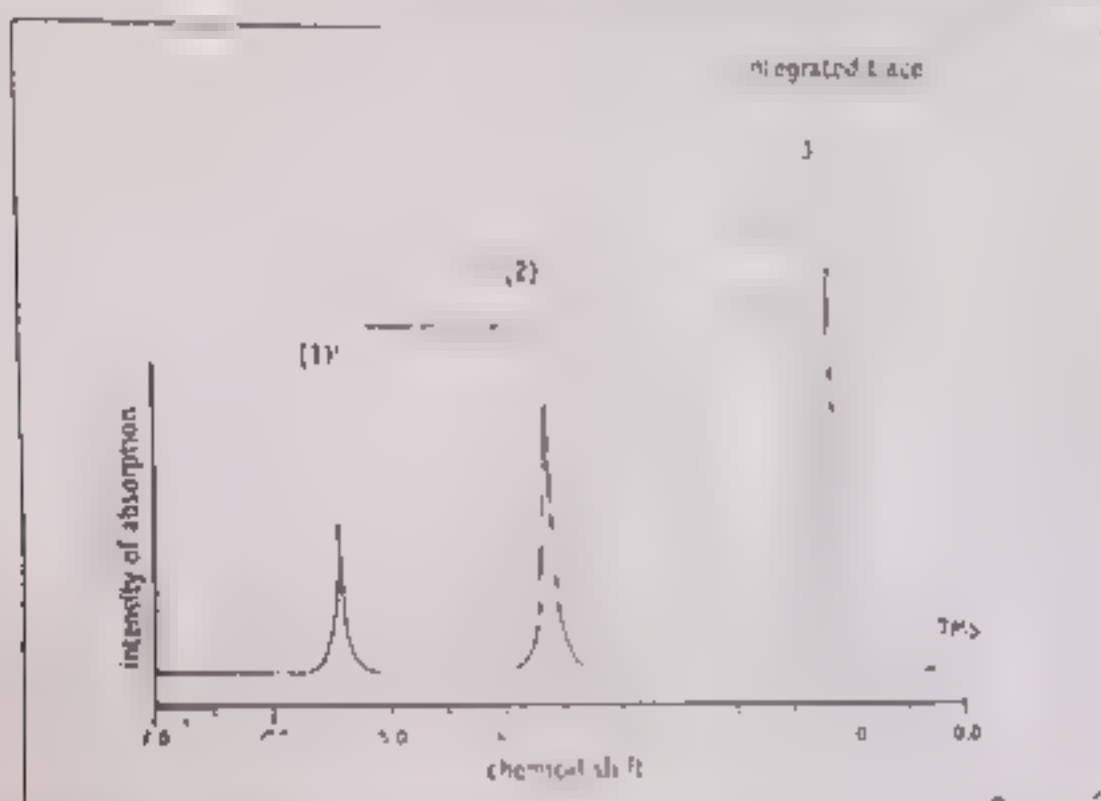


Figure A simplified proton NMR spectrum for ethanol (CH_3CH_2OH). The integrated trace shows that areas under the peaks are in the ratio 1:2:3

From the table of chemical shift values, the spectrum of ethanol can be interpreted as

- The largest peak (3) corresponds to the 3 H atoms in $-CH_3$
- The second largest peak (2) corresponds to the 2 H atoms in the $-CH_2-$ group
- The third peak (1) corresponds to the 1 H atoms in the $-OH$ group

QUICK QUIZ-3

(i) Use table to identify each of the peaks in figure (NMR spectrum of ethanol)

Approximate chemical shift values (δ values)	Nature of proton
About 5.4	Hydroxyl protons $-H$
About 3.5	Methylene protons $-CH_2-$
About 1.3	Methyl protons $-CH_3$

(ii) Explain the relative areas under the peaks

The ratio of relative height of integrated trace in the NMR spectrum is

Peak (1) : Peak (2) : Peak (3)
1 : 2 : 3

Thus

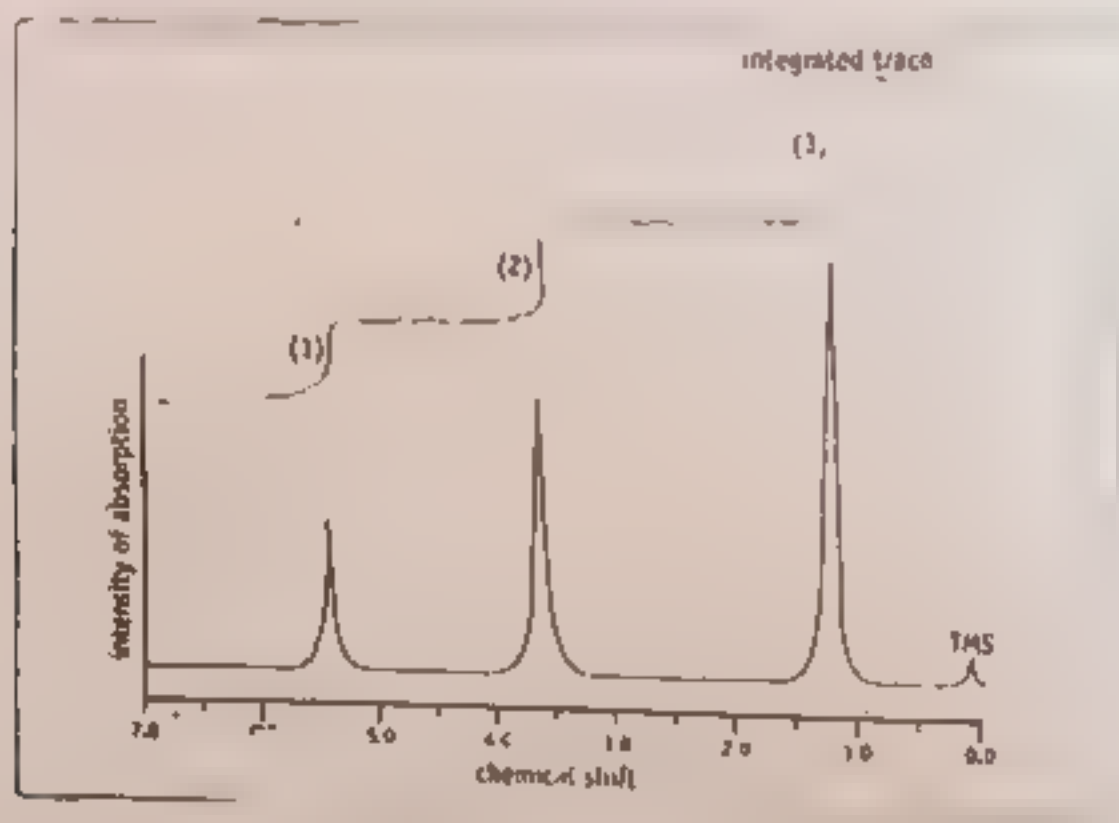
- Peak (1) corresponds to one proton (due to OH)
- Peak (2) corresponds to two protons (due to CH_2)
- Peak (3) corresponds to three protons (due to CH_3)

SPIN-SPIN COUPLING:

In NMR the magnetic interaction of neighboring nuclei with each other is called spin-spin coupling

In NMR the splitting of signal of a particular nucleus due to spin spin coupling with adjacent nucleus is called spin-spin splitting.

Consider the simulated NMR spectrum of ethanol as shown below



It shows three single peaks.

- The smallest peak corresponds to the single OH proton
- The middle peak corresponds to the two CH_2 protons
- The largest peak corresponds to the three CH_3 protons.

A detailed high-resolution spectrum of ethanol shows that the CH_2 and CH_3 peaks are in fact split into number of subsidiary peaks as shown in the figure below. This splitting is caused by spin spin coupling between protons on neighboring carbon atoms.

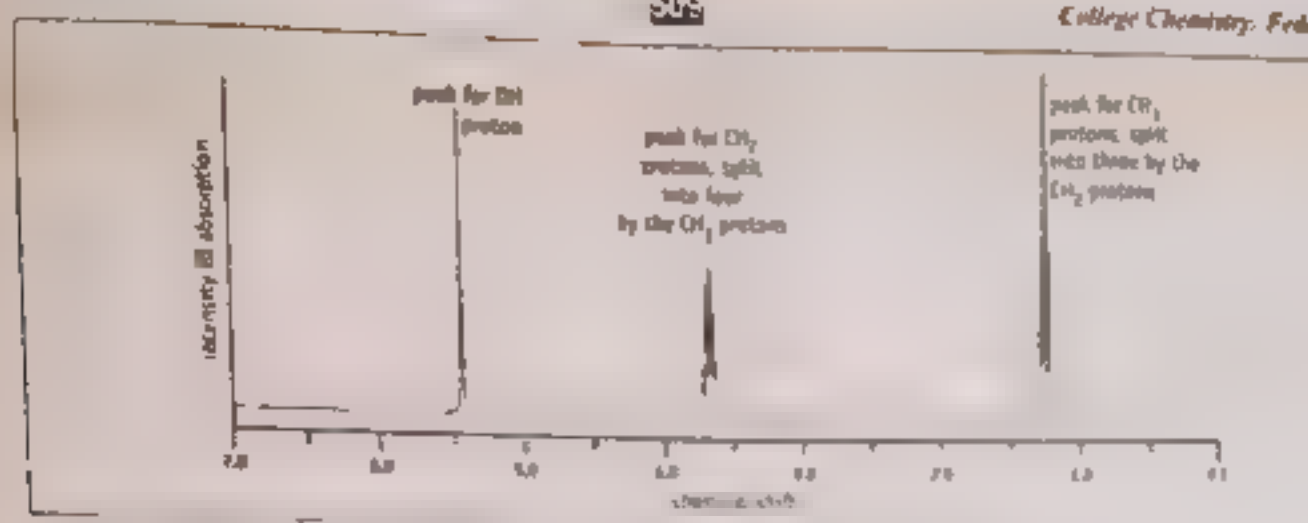


Figure: A detailed high resolution NMR spectrum for ethanol

Explanation of spin-spin coupling

- One of the carbon atoms in ethanol has two protons on it (CH_2). The other has three protons on it (CH_3). Consider CH_3 protons which are adjacent to CH_2 . When the external magnetic field is applied, these three tiny magnets can arrange themselves in four different ways

- All three aligned with the magnetic field
- All three aligned against the magnetic field
- Two aligned with the field and one aligned against it
- One aligned with the field and two aligned against it

Each of these four arrangements gives a slightly different overall magnetic field. So, each different field interacts with the neighboring CH_2 protons slightly differently.

Thus, these CH_2 protons give four different peaks very close to one another. These four peaks are called a **quartet**.

- Similarly the two protons on the CH_2 group can arrange themselves differently, in the external magnetic field. This time there are three different arrangements

- All two aligned with the magnetic field
- All two aligned against the magnetic field
- One aligned with the field and one aligned against it

Each of these different fields interacts with the neighbouring CH_3 protons slightly differently.

Thus, these CH_3 protons give three different peaks very close to one another. These three peaks are called **triplet**.

General rule:

A group carrying 'n' protons will cause the protons on a neighbouring group to split into 'n + 1' peaks

Hence, a high-resolution spectrum can be interpreted as

- Use the position of each overall peak to identify the type of protons causing the peak
- Use the integrated trace to find the number of each type of proton
- Use the n + 1 rule above to get information about the number of protons on the neighbouring group

QUICK QUIZ-4

(1) Which type of nucleus has magnetic field

If a nucleus has an even number of protons and even number of neutrons, it has no overall magnetic field.

(2) What happens when a magnetic nucleus is placed in magnetic field

If a magnetic nucleus is placed in an external magnetic field, the nuclear magnetic magnet can have two alignments.

- One is of low energy, which is along the external magnetic field and
- Other is of high energy, which is against the external magnetic field.

(3) What is nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy

It is an analytical technique used to find the nature of nuclei having magnetic moment (e.g. protons) in presence of external magnetic field.

The nuclei which have magnetic moment can take up two orientations in external magnetic field of low energy and higher energy. The low energy state can be converted into high energy by supplying energy in the radio frequency region. The exact frequency of energy depends on environment. Different protons in a molecule are in different frequency environments and thus they can be distinguished.

(4) What information is obtained from NMR spectrum

In NMR spectrum, peaks are present. These peaks give two information.

- The position of peak on X-axis gives the nature of nuclei present in a particular environment.
- The intensity of absorption on Y-axis gives the number of nuclei present in a particular environment.

(5) What information are obtained from numbers of peaks and area under peaks in NMR spectrum

- The number of peaks gives the types of nuclei in different environment.
- The area under peaks gives the number of nuclei in a particular environment.

(6) What is NMR reference?

In NMR spectrum, the position of a particular peak is measured as a chemical shift from a fixed reference point. The reference point normally used is the absorption of a substance known as Tetramethylsilane (TMS). The chemical shift of TMS reference is set at zero.

(7) Why splitting of peaks occur

In NMR, the splitting of signal of a particular nucleus due to spin-spin coupling with neighboring nuclei is called spin-spin splitting.

Let there is a particular nucleus having magnetic moment in a molecule. The magnetic nuclei of neighboring atoms may have different magnetic field due to their different alignments. So, each neighboring different nucleus interacts with a particular nucleus slightly differently. Thus, the signal of a particular nucleus is split up.

Exercise Q3 (a) What is the basic principle of Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy? Describe the instrumentation used.

ATOMIC EMISSION SPECTROSCOPY (AES)

In atomic emission spectroscopy, electronic transitions occur in atoms. It is done by an excitation of atoms using flames, sparks, etc. When the excited atoms return to the ground state, they emit characteristic radiation. The wavelength of light can be measured using a spectrometer.

Principle

The source vaporizes the sample and causes electronic excitation of elementary particles in the gas. Excited molecules in the gas phase emit band spectra. Thus, a molecule in an excited state of energy E_2 undergoes a transition to a state of lower energy E_1 and a photon of energy $h\nu$ is emitted where

$$E_2 - E_1 = h\nu$$

In each electronic state a molecule may exist in a number of vibrational and rotational states of different energies

Advantages of Emission Spectroscopy

Emission method is extremely important in analysis

- (1) This technique is highly specific
- (2) This method is extremely sensitive. With this technique all metallic elements can be detected even if they are present in very low concentration.
- (3) Even metalloids have been identified by this technique
- (4) This analysis can be performed either in solid or liquid state with almost equal convenience
- (5) This technique requires minimum sample preparation as a sample can be directly introduced into the spark
- (6) The technique provides results very rapidly. If automated time required is just 30 sec to one minute
- (7) This method has been used for a wide variety of samples like metals, alloys, paints, geological specimen, environmental and biological samples

Disadvantages of Emission Spectroscopy

- (1) The equipment is costly and wide experience is required for its successful handling and interpretation of spectra.
- (2) Recording is done on a photographic plate which takes some time to develop print and interpret the results
- (3) Radiation intensities are not always be reproducible.
- (4) Relative error exceeds 1 to 2 %
- (5) The accuracy and precision are not high

Applications:

- (1) Emission spectroscopy has been employed in determining the impurities of Ni, Mn, Cr, Si, Al, Mg, As, Sn, Co, V, Pb, Bi, P and Mo in iron and steel in metallurgical processes
- (2) Alloys of Zn, Cu, Pb, Al, Mg and Sn have been analyzed.
- (3) Lubricants oils have been analyzed for Ni, Fe, Cr, Mn, Si, Al and so on. If the concentration of metal in lubricating oil has increased during use, it indicates excessive wear and tear need of engine overhaul
- (4) In petroleum industry oil is analyzed for V, Ni, Fe the presence of which makes fuel poor
- (5) Solid samples and animal tissues have been analyzed for several elements including K, Na, Ca, Zn, Ni, Fe and Mg etc
- (6) Emission spectroscopy has been used to detect 40 elements in plants and soil. Thus metal deficiency in plants and soil and oil can be diagnosed
- (7) The following materials have been analysed by emission spectroscopy
 - (i) Trace and major constituents in ceramics
 - (ii) Traces of Co, Ni, Mo and V in Graphite
 - (iii) Trace metal impurities in analytical reagents
 - (iv) Trace of Ca, Cu, Zn in blood
 - (v) Zinc in pancreatic tissues

QUICK QUIZ-5

1. Give principle of atomic absorption spectroscopy.

2. Give few applications of atomic absorption spectroscopy.

3. Give principle of atomic emission spectroscopy.

4. Give few applications of atomic emission spectroscopy.

ATOMIC ABSORPTION SPECTROSCOPY (AAS)

Quick Quiz-5: 1. Give principle of atomic absorption spectroscopy.

Principle of AAS

Quick Quiz-5: 2. Give few applications of atomic absorption spectroscopy.

Applications of Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy (AAS)

1. The AAS technique has become the most desired & reliable.

2. It is used for the determination of various elements.

3. It is used for the determination of trace elements.

4. It is used for the determination of heavy metals.

QUICK QUIZ-6

1. Give principle of atomic absorption spectroscopy.

2. Give few applications of atomic absorption spectroscopy.

Exercise Q3 (iii) What is the basic principle of Mass Spectrometer? How does it work?

MASS SPECTROMETRY (MS)

The mass spectrometer is an instrument which turns atoms and molecules into ions and separates them according to their mass.

- In 1919 Aston invented the mass spectrometer. This gave chemists a reliable and accurate method of comparing the relative masses of atoms.
- At one time, the relative masses of atoms were known as atomic weights, but now they are referred to as relative atomic masses.

Basic Principle:

The basic idea of a mass spectrometer can be demonstrated using the apparatus shown in figure. Wooden balls of different sizes but with identical iron cores, roll down a slope. At the bottom, a powerful magnet attracts the iron cores and the moving balls are deflected.

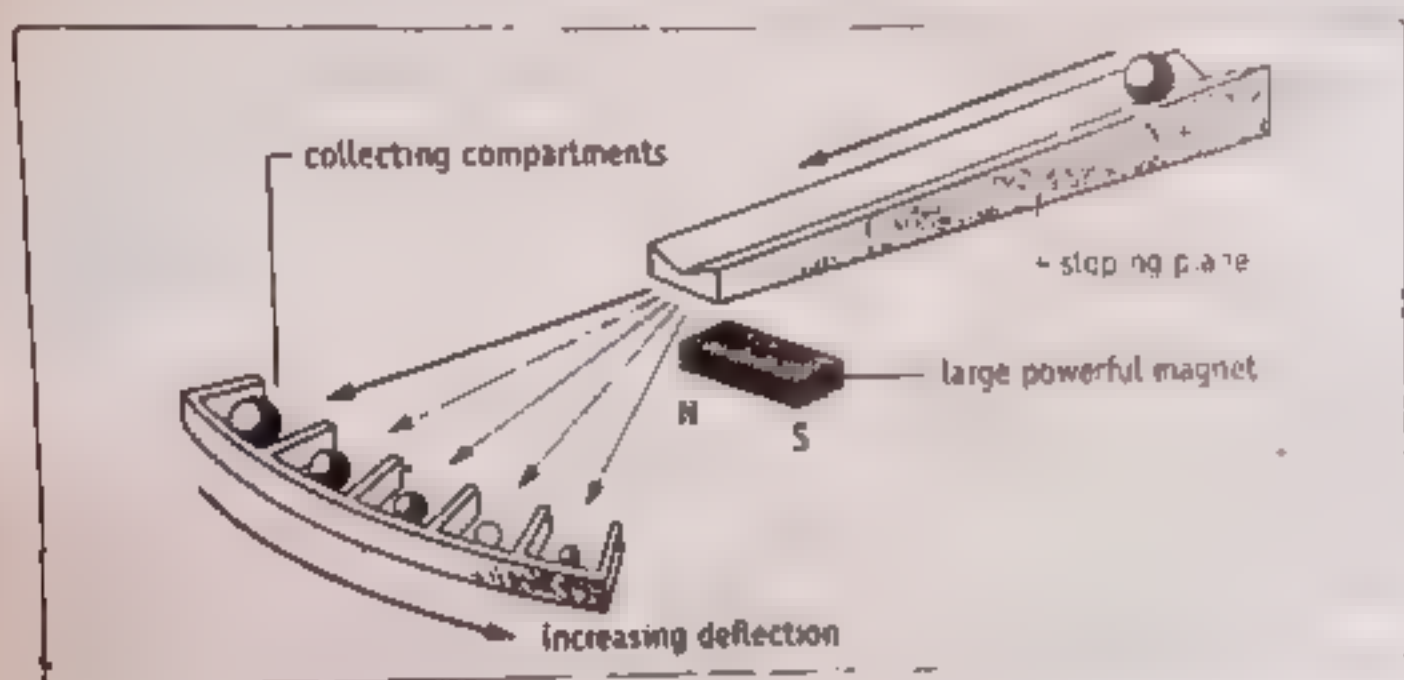


Figure: A simple model to illustrate the working of a mass spectrometer.

- As the balls have identical iron cores, they are all attracted equally. The lighter balls are deflected the most. The balls collect in the compartments according to their mass. All balls of the same mass collect in the same compartment. Using this simple apparatus, it is possible to separate the different sized balls according to their mass and to find their relative numbers.
- A real mass spectrometer works in a similar fashion to this simple model. It separates atoms according to their mass and shows the relative numbers of the different atoms. However, in a real mass spectrometer, the atoms and separated they must be converted to positively charged ions.

QUICK QUIZ-7

(1) Why does the magnet have the same attraction for all the balls?
Since the balls have identical iron cores, they are all attracted equally.

(2) Which size of ball will be deflected the most? Why?
The smaller balls are lighter, therefore they are deflected the most.

Mass Spectrometer Working

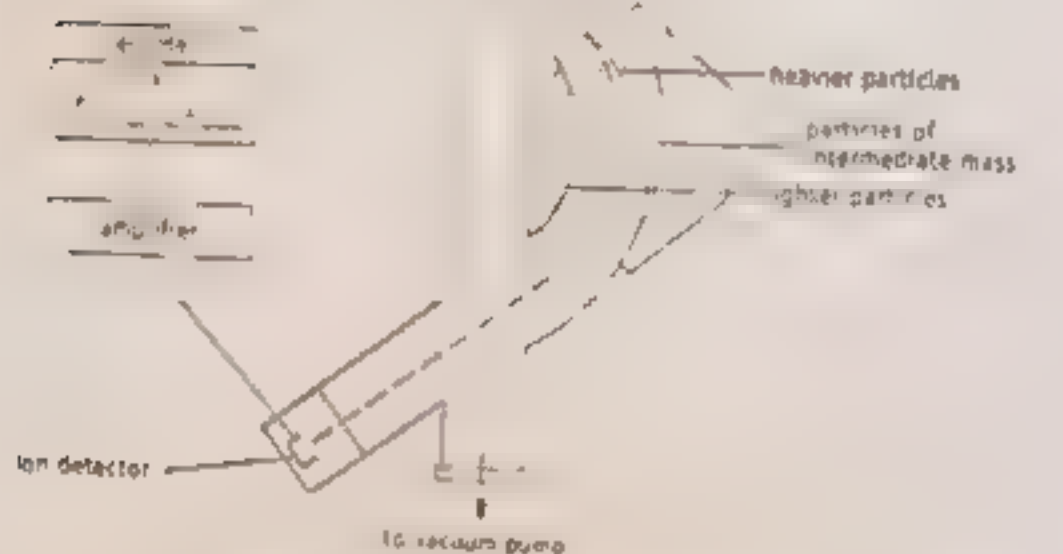


Figure A diagram of a mass spectrometer

Instrumentation and Working

It can be explained as follows

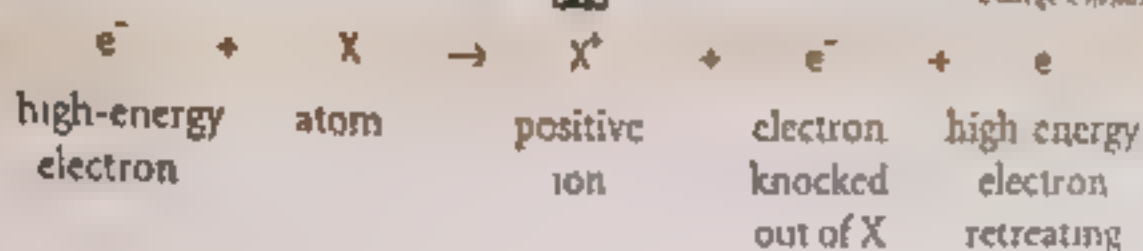
1 - Vaporization

- Gases, liquids and volatile solids are injected into the instrument just before the ionization chamber
- Less volatile solids must be preheated to vaporize them

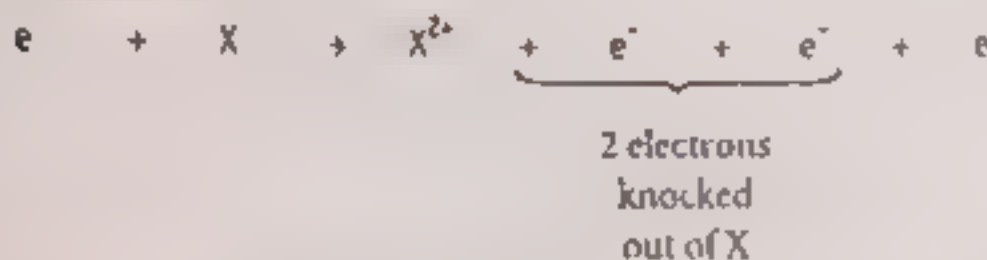
2 - Ionization

- After vaporization the elements pass into the ionization chamber
- Here atoms of the elements are bombarded with a stream of high energy electron
- This causes ionization. One or occasionally two electron are knocked out of the atoms resulting in ions

Example



or occasionally



3 - Acceleration

- These positive ions such X^+ and X^{2+} now pass through holes in parallel plates
- An electric field is applied to accelerate the ions into the instrument towards the magnetic field

4 - Deflection

- As the ions pass through the magnetic field they are deflected according to their mass and their charge
- The particles can only pass through the instrument if they are positively charged

5 - Detection

- If the accelerating electric field and the deflecting magnetic field are adjusted, ions of only one particular mass/charge ratio will hit the ion detector at the end of the apparatus
 - ✓ Ions of smaller mass/charge ratio will be deflected too much
 - ✓ Ions of greater mass/charge ratio will be deflected too little
- The ion detector is usually linked through an amplifier to a recorder
- As the strength of the magnetic field is slowly increased ions of increasing mass will be detected and mass spectrum is traced out by the recorder as shown in the figure

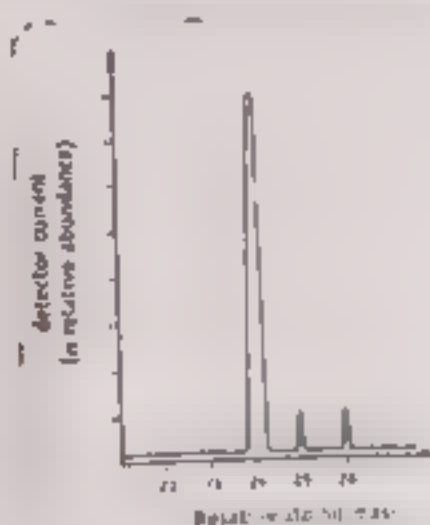


Figure: A mass spectrometer trace for naturally occurring ^{16}O

- The relative heights of the peaks in the mass spectrum give a measure of the relative abundance of the ions present
- In practice a reference peak using a known substance is first obtained on the mass spectrum. The masses of other particles can then be obtained by comparison with this

QUICK QUIZ-8

Look closely at figure 24.15

(1) How many different ions are detected in the mass spectrum of naturally occurring oxygen?
Since there are three peaks in the mass spec...

(2) What are the relative masses of these different ions?

The position of peaks shows that the relative masses are 24, 25 and 26

(3) What are the relative proportions of these different ions?

The ions with relative mass 24 is most abundant... comparatively less abundance. However both these have...

SOCIETY, TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE

FORENSIC CHEMISTRY

Forensic chemistry is the application of chemistry to criminal investigation

- It deals with criminal investigation in the laboratory, analysis of forensic evidence
- It also develops the analytical skills required for other areas of chemistry such as environmental, accident investigation and product liability
- Analytical measurements are essential to everyday life, required to determine and control the quality of many products, to protect the environment and to monitor pollution
- Thus, analytical chemistry is important not only in chemistry, but also in fields such as medicine and the forensic food, environmental and pharmaceutical sciences
- Forensic chemistry is the application of analytical chemistry to the law and involves the analysis of physical traces such as body fluids, bones, fibres and drugs
- The success in analytical chemistry requires the ability to make rigorous measurements of the principles and practice of modern instrumentation and a problem-solving approach

Abilities of a Forensic Chemist

- The forensic chemist requires a strong background in chemical analysis and must be able to effectively communicate the results of laboratory analysis in reports in courtrooms
- The forensic chemist must have a strong theoretical and experimental background as well as in problem solving skills
- Forensic chemists must have good attention to detail and superior problem-solving skills
- They need critical thinking abilities to solve crime puzzles based on fragmentary evidence
- Forensic chemists must take accurate notes and make accurate records of their findings. They also need strong writing skills to produce clear reports on highly technical subjects so that others can understand them

CHEMICAL INSTRUMENTATION AND TECHNOLOGY

- Chemical instruments are used extensively in research and development activities, laboratories of the major users
- Use of chemical instruments for disease diagnosis is on a rise
- Chemical equipment market is growing at a rapid rate due to the continuous requirement of instruments in pharmaceutical and biotechnology industries
- Besides, the increase in number of biotechnology firms worldwide, advances in life sciences, technology innovations with human genome mapping, and emergence of proteomics for industry growth as such high end research projects require quality instruments with high capacity. All these factors are driving the life science and chemical instrumentation market
- The global life science and chemical instrumentation market was estimated to be \$30.2 billion in the year 2011 and is expected to grow at a CAGR of 8.4% from 2011 to 2016 to reach \$45.2 billion

CONNECTION BETWEEN CHROMATOGRAPHY AND MS**Chromatography**

It is the collective term for a set of laboratory techniques for the separation of mixtures into their individual components. It is used to separate small amounts of materials present in those mixtures.

Principle

- The mixture is dissolved in a fluid called the mobile phase, which carries it through a structure containing another material called the stationary phase.
- The various constituents of the mixture travel at different speeds, causing them to separate.
- The separation is based on differential partitioning between the mobile and stationary phases. Differences in a compound's partition coefficient result in differential retention on the stationary phase and thus changing the separation.

Mass spectrometry

- It is an analytical technique that measures the mass-to-charge ratio of charged particles.
- It is used
 - ✓ for determining masses of particles,
 - ✓ for determining the elemental composition of a sample or molecule, and
 - ✓ for determining the chemical structures of molecules such as peptides and other chemical compounds.
- It works by ionizing chemical compounds to generate charged molecules or molecule fragments and measuring their mass-to-charge ratios.

Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry GC-MS

It is a method that combines the features of gas liquid chromatography and mass spectrometry, allowing for the separation and identification of different substances, even present in small amounts, within a test sample.

Applications

- These include drug detection, fire investigation, environmental analysis, explosives investigation, and identification of unknown samples.
- GC-MS can also be used in airport security to detect substances in luggage or on human beings.
- It can identify trace elements in materials that were previously thought to have disappeared beyond identification.
- GC-MS has been widely heralded as a "gold standard" for forensic substance identification. It is used to perform a specific test. A specific test positively identifies the substance present in a given sample.

Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry LC-MS or alternatively, HPLC-MS

It is a chemistry technique that combines the physical separation capabilities of liquid chromatography (or HPLC) with the mass analysis capabilities of mass spectrometry.

It has very high sensitivity and selectivity.

Applications

- Generally its application is oriented towards the analysis of complex mixtures of organic chemicals in the presence of other chemicals in a complex matrix.
- Preparative LC-MS system can be used for fast and efficient separation of complex mixtures, extracts and new molecular entities important to food, pharmaceutical and chemical industries.

Limitations

- The limitations of LC-MS in urine analysis drug screening is that it often fails to identify specific metabolites, in particular with hydrocodone and its metabolites.

II

KEY POINTS

- The molecular formula can be determined from the empirical formula once the molar mass is known.
- The number of protons and neutrons in an atom is the sum of the atomic number and mass number. It can be found from a known element's position in the periodic table.
- The instrument that is used to measure the amount of electromagnetic radiation absorbed by a sample is called a spectrophotometer.
- Absorption of infrared radiation causes covalent bonds within the molecule to be promoted from vibrational energy level to a higher energy level.
- Stronger bonds require greater energy to vibrate. Therefore such bonds absorb infrared radiation at shorter wavelengths.
- Different functional groups absorb radiation at different wavelengths and their presence or absence in a molecule can be determined by examination of an IR spectrum.
- No two compounds have exactly the same IR spectrum.
- Absorption of ultraviolet radiation causes electrons within molecules to be promoted from energy level to a higher electronic energy level.
- Compounds that absorb UV-Vis radiation are called chromophores. That the compound does not absorb radiation in the UV-Vis region indicates that the compound does not contain chromophores.
- If an organic compound absorbs UV-Vis radiation it means that the compound contains a carbonyl group, a conjugated double bond, or a conjugated system. For example, all conjugated dienes absorb in the UV-Vis region.
- Absorption of radio waves in the presence of a magnetic field causes nuclei within molecules to be promoted from one spin energy level to a higher spin energy level.
- The number of signals in a ^1H NMR spectrum corresponds to the number of different types of protons in the molecule.
- The position (chemical shift) of each signal gives information about the structural environment of the protons.
- The relative areas (integration) under the signals give the ratio of the numbers of each type of proton in the molecule. If the molecular formula is known, the actual number of each type of protons can be determined.
- The splitting pattern of each signal gives us the number of protons on neighboring carbons. The number of peaks into which a signal is split is one more than the total number of protons on the directly adjacent carbons.
- Emission spectroscopy is concerned with the characteristic radiation produced when atoms are excited. They emit radiations in the form of discrete wavelengths of light called spectral lines when they return to the lower energy states.
- Atomic absorption spectroscopy involves the study of the absorption of radiant energy, usually by neutral atoms in the gaseous state. If light of the resonance wavelength passes through a solution containing the atoms, the part of the light will be absorbed, and the extent of absorption is proportional to the number of ground state atoms present in the flame.
- Mass spectroscopy involves organic molecules being bombarded by a very high-energy electron beam.
- The peak of highest intensity in a mass spectrum is referred to as the base peak.
- Fragmentation processes can produce numerous fragments from which the structures of the original molecules can be deduced.
- When one electron is removed from a molecule, a molecular ion is produced. The molecular ion peak is the molecular weight of the compound being investigated. The molecular weights obtained by mass spectroscopy are extremely accurate.

EXERCISE

Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

Which of the following techniques does not involve electromagnetic radiations?

- (a) Infrared spectroscopy (b) NMR spectroscopy
(c) Mass spectroscopy (d) All of these involve electromagnetic radiations

Which region of the electromagnetic spectrum is involved in the electronic excitations?

- (a) Ultraviolet (b) Visible
(c) Both of these (d) None of these

Which of the following techniques is different from the others as regards the basic principle?

- (a) Ultraviolet spectroscopy (b) Mass spectroscopy
(c) Electronic spectroscopy (d) None of these

Which of the following is used as a source of visible radiations?

- (a) Tungsten filament lamp (b) Hydrogen discharge lamp
(c) Deuterium discharge lamp (d) All of these

What is the wavelength range of the ordinary infrared region?

- (a) 0.8-2.5 μm (b) 2.5-16 μm
(c) 16-1000 μm (d) 400-800 nm

The position of an infrared absorption band is commonly expressed by

- (a) Wavelength (b) Wave number
(c) Both of these (d) None of these

Which of the following is not used as a source of infrared radiations?

- (a) Nernst filament (b) Tungsten filament
(c) Globar (d) None of these

Which region of the electromagnetic spectrum is involved in mass spectrometry?

- (a) Visible (b) Microwave
(c) Radiowave (d) None of these

Mass spectroscopy is an analytical technique which involves

- (a) Production of gaseous ions from the sample
(b) Separation of the gaseous ions
(c) Measurement of the relative abundance of the gaseous ions
(d) All of these

Mass spectrometry can be used to determine

- (a) Molecular weight (b) Molecular formula
(c) Molecular structure (d) All of these

Which of the following species is detected in the mass spectrometer?

- (a) Positively charged species (b) Radicals
(c) Neutral molecules (d) All of these

Which of the following species is produced in the ionization chamber of a mass spectrometer?

- (a) Positively charged species (b) Radicals
(c) Neutral molecules (d) All of these

Which kind of information about a positively charged species obtained from a mass spectrum?

- (a) Molecular weight (b) Relative abundance
(c) Both of these (d) None of these

What kind of sample can be studied in a mass spectrometer?

- (a) A gas (b) A liquid
(c) A solid (d) All of these

Near ultraviolet region of the electromagnetic spectrum generally lies between

- (a) 10-200 nm (b) 200-400 nm
(c) 400-750 nm (d) 300-500 nm

Far ultraviolet or vacuum ultraviolet region generally lies between

(xii) Far infrared region of the electromagnetic radiation generally, 1 to 1000 μm

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

(i) Ans: (c) Mass spectroscopy

(ii) Ans: (c) Both of these

(iii) Ans: (d) None of these

(iv) Ans: (a) Tungsten filament lamp

(v) Ans: (b) 2.5-16 μm

(vi) Ans: (b) Wave number

(vii) Ans: (b) Tungsten filament

(viii) Ans: (d) None of these

(ix) Ans: (d) All of these

(x) Ans: (d) All of these

(xi) Ans: (a) Positively charged species

(xii) Ans: (a) Positively charged species

(xiii) Ans: (c) Both of these

(xiv) Ans: (d) All of these

(xv) Ans: (b) 200-400 nm

(xvi) Ans: (a) 10-200 nm

(xvii) Ans: (c) 50-1000 μm

Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

(i) What is spectroscopy? Underline its principle.

Spectroscopy. Spectroscopy involved using instruments to examine the interaction of chemicals giving information about their molecular structure.

Principle: When electromagnetic radiation, such as light or infrared shines on a substance, it interacts with the radiation in some way. The way a particular chemical interacts with the radiation reveals its molecules and structure.

(ii) What is meant by wavelength and frequency?

Wavelength

It is the distance between two adjacent crests or troughs in a beam of radiation.

It is denoted by λ .

Its units are picometer, nanometer or angstrom etc.

$$1 \text{ \AA} = 10^{-10} \text{ m}, 1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}, 1 \text{ pm} = 10^{-12} \text{ m}$$

Frequency

It is the number of waves, which passes through a given point in one second.

It is denoted by ν . Its units are cycles s^{-1} or s^{-1} or Hertz (Hz).

$$1 \text{ Hz} = 1 \text{ cycles s}^{-1}$$

Q2: What is spectrometer? Briefly discuss its working.

Spectrometer: The instrument used to measure the amount of substance is called spectrometer.

Working: In a spectrometer, the radiations absorbed by a sample are measured. The spectrum can be used to find information about the sample.

(i) How will you distinguish between

(i) 1,3-Pentadiene and 1,4-Pentadiene

1,3-Pentadiene is a conjugated system. It absorbs at a higher wavelength and has higher intensity than 1,4-Pentadiene.

(ii) Benzene and anthracene by UV-spectroscopy?

Anthracene molecule has three horizontal rings. It absorbs at a higher wavelength than benzene.

(iii) Two isomeric dienes (X) and (Y) having the molecular formula C_5H_8 absorb at $\lambda_{max} = 223nm$ and $\lambda_{max} = 178nm$ respectively. Write the structures of the two isomers.

(These are 1,3-Pentadiene and 1,4-Pentadiene)

1,3-Pentadiene is a conjugated system. It absorbs at $\lambda_{max} = 223nm$. 1,4-Pentadiene is a non-conjugated system. It absorbs at $\lambda_{max} = 178nm$.

(iv) Give significant application of Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy (AAS).

- (1) This method is very sensitive.
- (2) This method is highly specific.
- (3) The technique is firmly established in analytical chemistry of metallurgy, water supplies and soil analysis.

(v) How will you distinguish between 2-Pentanone and 3-Pentanone by using IR-spectroscopy?

2-Pentanone has a major peak at $1715cm^{-1}$.

3-Pentanone has a major peak at $1715cm^{-1}$.

Q3: Give detailed answers for the following questions.

(i) What is combustion analysis? Describe its different steps.

Page 496

(ii) An organic compound consists of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen. It is subjected to combustion analysis. 0.5439g of the compound gave 1.039g of CO_2 . Find the formula of the compound.

Solution:

Mass of organic compound

Mass of CO_2

Mass of H_2O

Thus, Percentage of C

Percentage of H

Percentage of O

$$\text{Percentage of H} = \frac{0.6369}{0.5439} \times \frac{2.016}{18} \times 100 = 13.12\%$$

$$\text{Percentage of O} = 100 - (52.11 + 13.11) = 34.78\%$$

ELEMENT	%	No. of gram atoms	Atomic Ratio	Empirical Formula
C	52.10	$\frac{52.10}{12} = 4.34$	$\frac{4.34}{2.17} = 2$	C_2H_6O
H	13.12	$\frac{13.12}{1.008} = 13.02$	$\frac{13.02}{2.17} = 6$	
O	34.78	$\frac{34.78}{16} = 2.17$	$\frac{2.17}{2.17} = 1$	

Thus the empirical formula for the organic compound is C_2H_6O

- (iii) The combustion analysis shows that organic compounds contain 65.44% carbon, 5.50% hydrogen and 29.06% of oxygen. What is empirical formula? If the molecular mass of this compound is 110.15 mole⁻¹ then calculate molecular formula of given organic compound. (Ans: C_3H_8O , $C_6H_{16}O_2$)

Solution:

ELEMENT	%	No. of gram atoms	Atomic Ratio	Empirical Formula
C	65.44	$\frac{65.44}{12} = 5.45$	$\frac{5.45}{1.82} = 3$	C_3H_8O
H	5.50	$\frac{5.50}{1.008} = 5.45$	$\frac{5.45}{1.82} = 3$	
O	29.06	$\frac{29.06}{16} = 1.82$	$\frac{1.82}{1.82} = 1$	

Thus the empirical formula is C_3H_8O .

To determine the molecular formula, first calculate the empirical formula mass.

$$\text{Empirical formula mass of } C_3H_8O = 12 \times 3 + 1.008 \times 8 + 16 \times 1 = 55.05 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$$

$$\text{Molecular (or molar) mass of the compound} = 110.15 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$$

$$n = \frac{\text{molecular mass of compound}}{\text{empirical formula mass of compound}} = \frac{110.15}{55.05} = 2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus Molecular formula} &= n (\text{empirical formula}) \\ &= 2 (C_3H_8O) \\ &= C_6H_{16}O_2 \end{aligned}$$

- (1a) What is meant by the term chemical shift of a particular proton in NMR spectroscopy? Also draw splitting pattern of protons in NMR spectrum of ethyl alcohol. Page 505
- (a) Discuss the general principle and instrumentation of Atomic Emission Spectroscopy. What is the basic principle of Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy? Describe the instrumentation used. Page 512
- What is the basic principle of Mass Spectrometer? How does it work? Page 513

TEST YOUR SKILLS

Marks: 35

OBJECTIVE

Time: 20 Minutes

Marks: 17

Note: Over writing, cutting, erasing, using lead pencil will result in loss of marks.

Q1. Circle the correct option i.e. A/B/C/D. Each part carries one mark.

- (i) A _____ is an instrument which allows radiation to interact with sample of chemical and analyze the changes.
(A) combustion chamber (B) spectroscope (C) Mass spectrum (D) HPLC-MS
- (ii) Infrared radiation makes the bonds of molecule to _____
(A) excite (B) rotate (C) vibrate (D) None
- (iii) _____ radiation excites the electrons from lower energy level to highest level.
(A) ultraviolet (B) Visible (C) Microwaves (D) both a & b
- (iv) _____ involves radio waves
(A) Nuclear magnetic resonance (B) Electron spin resonance
(C) Mass Spectrometry (D) both a & b
- (v) IR absorption is used to identify bonds and _____ in an organic compound.
(A) no. of carbon atoms (B) functional groups (C) rotation (D) none of these
- (vi) Which of following techniques does not involve electromagnetic radiation?
(A) NMR Spectroscopy (B) Infrared Spectroscopy
(C) Mass Spectrometry (D) All of these
- (vii) Which of the following is used as source of visible radiation?
(A) Tungsten filament lamp (B) Deuterium discharge lamp
(C) Hydrogen discharge lamp (D) none
- (viii) In IR spectrum of propanone, strong peak is at about 1720 cm^{-1} which refers to _____ bond.
(A) C-C bond (B) C-H bond (C) C=O bond (D) both a & c
- (ix) In IR spectrum of propanone which absorption at _____ refers to C-H bond.
(A) 1600 cm^{-1} (B) 2500 cm^{-1} (C) 3000 cm^{-1} (D) 1900 cm^{-1}
- (x) Useful and interesting region of IR spectrum is the region above _____
(A) 1500 cm^{-1} (B) 2000 cm^{-1} (C) 3000 cm^{-1} (D) 3400 cm^{-1}
- (xi) A solution of titanium (III) chloride appears violet, it absorbs which region of spectrum?
(A) green (B) yellow (C) green-yellow (D) Red
- (xii) In mass spectrometry, ions with _____ mass-charge ratio can be deflected more.
(A) smaller (B) greater (C) particular (D) None
- (xiii) The position of ultraviolet-visible absorption band is commonly expressed by _____
(A) Wave length (B) Wave Number (C) both (D) None
- (xiv) Why do transition metal compounds show colour?
(A) due to incomplete d-orbitals (B) due to metallic nature
(C) because of excitation of molecule (D) all of these
- (xv) HCl molecule absorbs IR radiation of frequency _____
(A) $7.21 \times 10^{13}\text{ Hz}$ (B) $6.2 \times 10^{11}\text{ Hz}$ (C) $5.5 \times 10^{14}\text{ Hz}$ (D) $1.6 \times 10^{16}\text{ Hz}$
- (xvi) _____ is chosen as NMR reference
(A) ethyl benzene (B) ethanol (C) H_2O (D) tetramethylsilane
- (xvii) Which of the following species is detected in mass spectrometer?
(A) Radicals (B) Positively charged species
(C) Neutral molecules (D) All of these

(i) SUBJECTIVE

(ii) Time: 2:35 Hours

Total Marks Section B and C: 68

(iii) Section - B (Marks 42) (14 \times 3 = 42)

Q2. Attempt any FOURTEEN parts. The answer to each part should not exceed 5 to 6 lines.

- (i) (a) Differentiate between Qualitative & Quantitative analysis. (2)
(b) Define Analytical chemistry. (2)
- (ii) (a) Define Spectroscopy. (1)
(b) Describe different types of Spectroscopy. (2)
- (iii) Describe characteristic significance of IR Spectroscopy. (3)
- (iv) How does IR spectroscopy explain type of bonds & functional group in case of prop. none. (3)
- (v) (a) Why transition metal compounds are coloured? (1)
(b) What happens when radiation strikes a substance? (2)
- (vi) Describe why methylene blue is blue in colour? (3)
- (vii) Aqueous solution of Titanium (III) chloride is violet in color. Explain the phenomena behind this. (3)
- (viii) What is significance of NMR Spectroscopy? (1)
- (ix) (a) What is NMR Reference? (1)
(b) Why splitting of peaks occur in NMR spectrum. (2)
- (x) (a) How emission spectroscopy is applied in metallurgy? (1.5)
(b) How lubricant oil can be analysed by emission spectroscopy. (1.5)
- (xi) (a) Describe the basic principle of Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy. (2)

- (b) Which type of elements and samples are analyzed by AAS. (1)
- (xi) (a) Name main steps involved in mass Spectrometer (1.5)
- (b) How sample is ionized in mass Spectrometer (1.5)
- (xii) How ion detector works in mass Spectrometer (3)
- (xiv) Describe basic principle of chromatography (3)
- (xv) (a) What is LC - MS? (1)
- (b) Describe applications of GCMS (2)
- (xvi) How will you distinguish between (3)
- (a) Pentanone and (b) Hexanone by using mass spectra. (3)
- (xvii) Differentiate between atomic absorption Spectroscopy and atomic emission Spectroscopy (3)
- (xviii) (a) What is wavelength of IR & UV (2)
- (b) Which colour of visible light does methylene blue absorb? (1)
- (xix) (a) What is drawback of combustion analysis? (1)
- (b) Name modern methods of analysis. (2)

Section - C

Note: Attempt any TWO questions. All questions carry equal marks. (2 × 13 = 26)

- (a) How molecular formula of organic compound is determined by combustion analysis? (5)

(b) An organic compound consists of C, H, O was subjected to combustion analysis 0.5438 g of compound gave 1.039 g of CO_2 and 0.6369 g of H_2O . determine empirical formula of compound. (4)

(c) How different types of radiation interact with chemicals. (4)
- (a) Define IR Spectroscopy. How IR spectroscopy is applied to analyze different compounds. (5)

(b) Describe Spin - spin coupling in NMR Spectroscopy. (4)

(c) Explain advantages & Disadvantages of AES. (4)
- (a) Explain instrumentation & working of Mass Spectrometer. (4)

(b) Describe application of AAS. (5)

(c) How chromatography and MS can be helpful in analysis if combined together. (4)
- (a) Explain chemical shift of particular proton in NMR spectroscopy using example. (4)

(b) How analytical chemistry benefits in field of Forensic sciences. (5)

(c) Discuss application of Atomic emission spectroscopy. (4)

